

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Volume LXIV

\*

NOVEMBER 1956

\*

Number 8

## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

\*

### TOWARD UNDERSTANDING INTERNATIONAL REALITIES

CONCEPTIONS of education for world affairs are becoming more realistic. When the United States had relatively few responsibilities and commitments abroad, the emphasis seemed largely confined to conceptions of "human brotherhood." Enlightened self-interest and survival values are now coming to be powerful motivating forces. Self-interest, as well as democratic ideals, are beginning to lead teachers, as well as other citizens, to reappraise the world and its peoples.

Such is one of the more important conclusions of a most useful publication of the John Dewey Society, *Teaching World Affairs in American Schools: A Case Book*, edited by Professors Samuel Everett and Christian O. Arndt (New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1956). Teachers from the kindergarten into the senior college will all find short accounts of actual projects, materials, and methods relevant to their own level of teaching for better understanding of international realities or for a better appreciation of other peoples and their cultures. The four main parts of the work are concerned, respectively, with the following topics: (1) "Classroom Teaching and Learning in Public Schools," (2) "All-School and Out-of-Class Activities," (3) "System-wide School and Community Services," and (4) "College, Teacher, and Adult Education."

On the high-school level a few examples

will indicate the quality of the work. Despite the editors' cautionary comment that, in some areas, community pressures bias social-studies-teaching, the ninth-grade unit on the Soviet Union which was taught in the Johns Hill Junior High School of Decatur, Illinois, shows how a controversial topic may be well handled for school and community education and enlightenment. It is noteworthy that, in this six-week unit, "each pupil wrote a paper of 500 to 1,000 words. . . . Pupils were taught how to make a bibliography and each was required to submit one with his paper. Papers dealt with everything from biography of leaders to statements on basic economic problems in Russia." Two California schools, Stockton College and Kern County Union High School, show how literature and history may be used as a team to help teach better understanding of international affairs. What an academically "underprivileged" group of high-school Seniors can be led to do in the study of "Strategic Areas and the United Nations" is reported by Professor George H. Henry, of the University of Delaware and the Bridgeville (Delaware) High School. The value of individual research with a picked group is well described by two teachers from Hunter College High School in New York City.

What can be done when unusual resources are available is indicated by the work-camp experiences in Germany and France of the

students of the George School (Bucks County, Pennsylvania). The intelligent use of human resources in a university community is exemplified by the co-operation of Cornell University and the Ithaca (New York) public schools. Two illustrations of good teacher education in this area may also be cited. At the University of Missouri the traditional course in comparative education has been revised to give more attention to background information on international affairs and to the work of international educational organizations. Washington University, in St. Louis, planned and carried through a short, summer seminar, mainly for teachers, who studied a Mexican city of 10,000 population under the direction of a Mexican anthropologist. One of the most interesting reports is that from Marin County (California), where "An Anti-United Nations Campaign Is Unsuccessful." Here the attempts of a few "anti's" to "pressure" the school authorities to stop teaching about the United Nations resulted in the formation of a citizens' committee to help protect the schools from unwarranted attacks.

But there is still much to be done in the area of education for an adequate understanding of international realities. The editors of the volume comment:

In many senior high schools, for example, more extensive research should be possible. Reliance is still placed too largely on good will alone. The hard realities of national self-interest, the clash of vested economic forces in the Western world, the dangers inherent in holding intransigent nationalistic positions, the threat to guaranteed freedoms in the United States, the appeal of communism to the hungry millions of Asia, the revolutionary surge of colonial peoples, and the ever threatening expansion of Communistic power—these are seldom sensed in their stark reality. Major weaknesses of this kind in educational programs, wherever they exist, will need to be remedied if American schools are realistically to introduce children and youth to the actual world.

Teaching about the United Nations and its specialized agencies is clearly only a part—and, in the writer's opinion, a minor part—of the job of making young Americans conscious of international realities. But

it is an *essential* part, so that all concerned with this area of learning must be alert to defend true education against obscurantist pressure groups and against the superficiality and sentimentality still found in such teaching. Two other obstacles, which are noted in a recent report made to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization by the Secretary-General of the UN and the Director-General of UNESCO, are the lack of adequate preparation on the part of teachers and the paucity of suitable teaching materials. These two officials suggest a high priority for study of the UN in teacher-training programs and call for the periodic issue by the UN of "a series of up-to-date and attractive publications, specially meant for the various school levels."

Two such publications recently appeared. Particularly timely is a beautifully illustrated and informative booklet entitled *UNKRA in Action: The United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency* (New York: United Nations, \$0.30). Even more valuable in a high-school world-history class is the reprint from the December, 1955, *UNESCO Courier* of Herbert Abraham's "Dear Jenny: A Father Brings the U.N.'s Ten Years into Perspective for His 15-Year-Old Daughter." Anyone who teaches teen-agers will appreciate Dr. Abraham's way of "recollecting" for Jenny what his generation lived through and his pointing out, fairly and accurately, what he and others had hoped for from the United Nations and the extent to which, so far, those hopes have been both fulfilled and disappointed. The reader's interest is caught at the beginning by his comparison of how our coming to consciousness of the world around us is like walking into a movie after the film has been running for an hour. He concludes:

It is late in the life of human society to begin organizing internationally for world-wide co-operation. But I recall the answer of eighty-year-old Cato when he was asked: "Why are you beginning to learn Greek at the age of eighty?" He replied, "At what other age can I begin?"

We have begun.

"Dear Jenny" is available from the UNESCO Publications Center (475 Fifth Avenue, New York 36, New York) at 15 cents for a single copy or at a special rate of 10 cents for 100 or more copies.

That many of the most educative experiences in learning about other peoples stem from informal contacts and activities is the basic point made by Howard E. Wilson, secretary of the Educational Policies Commission, in two recent publications. He has spelled this out in great detail in his new book, *American College Life as Education in World Affairs* (Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1956), and, more briefly, in his part in the symposium published in the *Educational Record* last April. In this discussion Dr. Wilson said:

A poll of 1,000 college Seniors made last spring [1955] indicated that, in students' opinion, their reading of magazines, listening to the radio, attendance at non-class lectures and forums, contacts with foreign students, travel experiences, and informal contact with faculty members who had themselves had experience in the international field had quite as much to do with shaping their outlooks and deepening their insights into international relations as did the courses they had taken.

Dr. Wilson comments that summer study-tours have become "almost a poor man's equivalent of the European Grand Tour by which English students of the eighteenth century climaxed their education." In the SPAN project in Minnesota, for example, "selected students prepare carefully in their regular programs for a ten-week period of study 'in the field' of another country, and report on their field work in such fashion as to gain full university credit."

Some university unions "have moved into a position of cultural centers, with extensive programs of lectures, forums, debates, movie showings, exhibits, and discussion groups. . . . At the University of Wisconsin, the union has become a regular division of the university, and exploratory ventures have been made in combining certain formal courses with certain union activities." Six hundred American campuses have international relations clubs, though most of

them seem to be "wandering stepchildren on the campus; their chief problems arise from the fact that the role of faculty adviser is not a clear and definite one. Some advisers tend to dominate clubs, but the chief problem is that many advisers do not even advise."

In the same symposium, Donald J. Shank, executive vice-president of the Institute of International Education, estimates that the number of foreign students in American colleges and universities will for years exceed 35,000 annually. Consequently he calls upon leaders in higher education to use greater care in admitting such students, to provide better advisory facilities and ways of making worthwhile community contacts for them, and to make a more adequate use of them in enriching our educational programs for all college youth.

In their work with foreign students, educators will be aided by *Open Doors, 1955-56: A Report on Five Surveys* (New York 21: Institute of International Education. \$.50). The five surveys report basic data about foreign students, foreign doctors, and foreign faculty members in the United States and about American students and faculty members abroad during the academic year 1955-56. More foreign students come here from Canada (almost 5,000) than from any other country. In second rank is China, with 2,600. The seven other countries with more than 1,000 students each in the United States are as follows: India, Korea, Philippine Islands, Japan, Mexico, Colombia, and Iran. More than half of the foreign students were undergraduates, and the field of study which attracted more than any other was engineering, with 22 per cent. In the same year approximately 10,000 Americans were studying in foreign colleges and universities, with almost three-fifths of the total in Europe and about 30 per cent almost equally divided between Canada and Mexico.

One persistent problem is the proper orientation of foreign students to American conditions and values. A useful little booklet, obtainable on request from the Institute of International Education, is *Orientation of Foreign Students: Signposts for the Cultural Maze*. The committee which prepared this

statement points out that "orientation" means different things to different people:

To the social scientist it usually means alleviating "cultural shock"; to the United States congressman, correcting misconceptions about America; to the educator, a program of instruction in language and culture; to the community leader, an opportunity to foster interpersonal contacts and experiences. To the professional program administrator, orientation is all of these things plus a wide range of practical services offered the exchange student to smooth his path before and during his sojourn.

Thorough orientation is now given at some forty orientation centers on American campuses. Study of the English language is the foundation of most of these approaches, but generous use is made also of the provision of practical information, field trips, home hospitality, and week-end outings. The committee warns that we should not assume that all foreign students are "problems" but rather believe that the majority can "orient" themselves with occasional guidance and help. It is through the free exchange of ideas, not by means of high-pressure propaganda, that we can lead foreign visitors—students and others—to a better appreciation of what our country stands for in today's world.

A promising method used by some organizations is to stress understanding of the "culture concept" in general, rather than [of] the host country in particular, especially during the period prior to actual contact with the host country. The focus is on methods of analyzing cultures, rather than on facts about a particular culture. The traveler is helped to anticipate the frustrations he is likely to encounter in a society which, at first glance, may appear "abnormal" to him. A related method used to develop cultural objectivity is intensive study of one's own culture as a means of developing detachment about cultures in general. . . .

Once the visitor arrives in the host country, another important means . . . is to provide meaningful experiences and activities within the framework of the host culture. . . . By actually participating in the typical activities of a foreign campus, a local community, or a local family, the foreign visitor begins to acquire insight into the nature of the society.

One of the most useful "leads" suggested by the committee to educators orienting foreign students is based on preliminary findings of the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Cross-cultural Education. These findings indicate:

The foreign visitor passes through a series of stages during which his mental outlook changes from an initial "spectator stage" to an adjustive or adaptive stage, to a final stage of psychological readjustment to his home country. It appears that the initial phase is one of kaleidoscopic impressions during which the exchangee is not likely, for example, to start correcting established preconceptions about the host country. During this stage it may well be that only the most obviously useful material, such as that dealing with the academic system and requirements, or with administrative and practical matters, should be presented. By the same token, it may be that correction of misconceptions should be postponed until the visitor has started to ask more penetrating questions about his environment, possibly, as is sometimes now done, until the mid-point or even the final stages of his sojourn.

#### A "race" in education?

If one word can be the key to educational development on a world scale, that word is "more," interpreted in both its obvious sense and in the way Oliver Twist once used it. At the Nineteenth International Conference on Public Education, in which the representatives of seventy-four countries met at Geneva last July, "every report told of more schools, more teachers, and, above all, more pupils. . . . Though progress was emphasized . . . there was also frank recognition of the fact that millions of children are still deprived of their rightful share of learning."<sup>1</sup>

To the writer this statement is, paradoxically, one of the most hopeful signs in the world today, not, of course, because millions of children are without the means of formal

<sup>1</sup> The major facts about world educational developments in 1954-55 may be found in *Educational Progress in 1954-1955: A Comparative Study*. Extract from the *International Yearbook of Education*, Vol. XVII. Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1955.

education, but because, for the first time in human history, this condition is being seen, all over the world, as a situation which must not be permitted to last out this century. In other words, for the first time, the education of all sorts and conditions of children all over the world is coming to be regarded as a "problem" for all of us to help "solve." We have had dinned into us for years that we are now engaged in a race between education and catastrophe, with no guaranty that catastrophe will not win. But if education should win, the twentieth century may be remembered longest as the first age in which the majority of the world's people learned how to read and write!

There is another educational "race" which is attracting considerable attention. As M. Alfred Borel, of Switzerland, the chairman of the conference, said: "There are clear signs of an education race which may well become one of the characteristics of our age." On the last day of the conference, Mme L. B. Doubrovina, deputy minister of education in the largest republic in the Soviet Union, invited the United States to "a competition in the field of education." Later an American spokesman replied that the educational system of the United States was being developed according to national needs and not with the aim of competing with other countries. But a good many of the recent comments about the growth of scientific and engineering education in the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. suggest that some Americans agree with Mme Doubrovina that such a "race" exists and that it is important.

Perhaps most attention to this putative race derives from such statements as those of Homer and Norton Dodge on "What's Wrong with Schools in the United States" (*U.S. News and World Report*, October 7, 1955), taken together with such reports on Russian education as have been made this year by William Benton, publisher of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, after a visit to Russia. The Dodge figures showed a great drop during the past fifty years in the per cent of American high-school students taking

algebra (from 56 to 24), plane geometry (from 27 to 11), and physics (from 19 to 4). In *School and Society* for March 31, 1956, Walter Crosby Eells points out the fact, familiar to school people, that these percentage drops actually conceal significant *increases* in the *number* of students taking those subjects between 1900 and 1956. In algebra and geometry the increase was approximately 500 per cent; in physics, 200 per cent. Each of these is well ahead of the 120 or 125 per cent increase in total population. The statement that about half of our high schools offer little or no instruction in chemistry is open to two objections: (1) that many small high schools offer each of these subjects in alternate years to Juniors and Seniors and (2) that the per cent of the high-school population in such schools is small. Perhaps the upshot of the matter is that we should add a course in simple statistics to the required high-school curriculum!

More light is shed on this matter by the June, 1956, issue of *School Life*. Between 1948-49 and 1954-55 the *number* of students increased in every high-school course in science and in every mathematics course except solid geometry. Total enrolments in mathematics and science as groups increased percentage-wise during the same period when compared with the total *population* of 14-17-year-olds. On the other hand, all science and mathematics courses, except biology and trigonometry, showed a decrease percentage-wise when compared with total high-school *enrolment*. In other words, the "holding power" of the high schools has increased over the period from 62 per cent to 73 per cent of the age group, but a smaller per cent of those "saved" for additional courses took reputedly "hard" courses. And this is as anyone familiar with the pattern of "typical" high schools' enrolments would expect!

Of course all these figures on what *is* does not shake the criticisms of those who think that our "race" with the Russians, as well as our own welfare in engineering and scientific fields, demands that we save able students from taking the "easy" path in high

school only to find that they have barred themselves from preparing for work which they could well do and might well want to do later. Certainly we do not want our students to work as hard at school work as do most of the Russians if Mr. Benton's informants are to be believed; for the Russians have adapted the "elite" European timetable and are applying, along with it, the American principle of secondary education for all—a formidable combination, if and when it works. Nor do we want to ape the Russians in their excessively early specialization and heavy concentration upon science to the considerable exclusion of humanistic and social studies (save for the Marxist-Leninist propaganda all are subjected to). But read part of Mr. Benton's description of the situation as he reports it in the *NEA Journal* for May, 1956:

Russian youngsters go to school six days a week, ten months a year. Discipline is strict, study hours are long, and the curriculum is demanding. For the first four years Soviet children concentrate on reading, writing, arithmetic, and Russian. In the last six years more than 40 per cent of their time goes to science and mathematics.

During these six years, they must take algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Also compulsory are four or five years of physics, four years of chemistry, two years of biology, a year of astronomy, a year of psychology, and six years of a foreign language. [EDITOR'S NOTE: One must remember that "year" does not necessarily mean meetings of four or five times a week for a year. European schools are not bound to the Procrustean bed of the Carnegie unit!]

Those readers who want a more complete account of the Russian system than the *NEA Journal* offers will find an excellent description in "The Voice of the Kremlin: Some Firsthand Observations on Red Propaganda Techniques within the U.S.S.R. and Satellites," which is reprinted from Mr. Benton's article in the 1956 *Britannica Book of the Year*.

#### *Comparative education*

While it would be a mistake for Americans to become mesmerized by the educa-

tional and other progress of the Soviet Union, it would be at least an equally serious error to think that we now have nothing significant to learn from any other people in ways educational. Nor will Americans take that attitude if the influence of the recently formed Comparative Education Society is properly exerted. At the end of the Third Conference on Comparative Education, held last April, the Society was formed, with Professor William W. Brickman, the editor of *School and Society*, as president; Professor Robert B. Sutton of Ohio State University, vice-president; and Professor Gerald H. Read, of Kent State University (Kent, Ohio), secretary-treasurer. Membership is open, at \$2.00 a year, to professors and students of comparative education and to others interested in the field. The most ambitious project so far undertaken by the Society was the on-the-spot study of European schools which a small group of American educators made this last summer. In a recent letter to the writer, Professor Brickman says:

We spent four weeks in visiting schools and in holding conferences with foreign educators in Denmark, Germany, Switzerland, France, Holland, and Great Britain. The group consisted of forty-two persons, of whom about thirty-five were professors of education (a few were subject-matter professors) at thirty universities located in twenty-two states all over the country. . . . We not only had plenary conferences on general topics but also smaller ones on religious education, philosophy of education, educational research, etc. . . . We hope to continue the program.

Students of comparative education will also be interested in looking over the *Proceedings* of the 1954 and 1955 conferences on comparative education which Professor Brickman, with the co-operation of Professors I. L. Kandel and Alonzo G. Grace, organized. The conference in 1954 dealt with "The Role of Comparative Education in the Education of Teachers"; in 1955, with "The Teaching of Comparative Education." The latter is especially useful for the review of recent literature by Professor George F. Kneller and for the practical pedagogical

suggestions in the papers by Professors Robert King Hall and Thomas Woody.

American teachers who would like to know something about Mexican education before they go to Mexico for a summer will find such information in *Education in Mexico* by Marjorie C. Johnston, United States Office of Education specialist in comparative education in the American Republics (United States Office of Education Bulletin 1956, No. 1. \$0.55). And it may interest students that the two foreign schools of higher education which rank first and second in number of American students, Mexico City College and the National Autonomous University of Mexico, are briefly described here as part of the description of Mexican education as a whole.

Mexican education still has plenty of weak spots, but Mexico has been one of the pioneering countries in the blending of two widely different educational traditions, Spanish and Amerindian, and in the attack, through fundamental education, upon the problems of illiteracy and of low living standards generally. It was natural, therefore, that UNESCO's attack on illiteracy in the Americas should center at Pátzcuaro, Michoacán, in CREFAL (Centro Regional de Educación Fundamental para la América Latina). Here students from other parts of Latin America come to learn how to make a team attack on illiteracy and poverty. During their first six months they have classes in social anthropology, psychology, theory of fundamental education, and related fields; for a part of each day they work at a practical art, such as weaving, photography, tailoring, ceramics, aviculture, apiculture, or carpentry. Then they go in teams of five to live for nine and a half months in near-by communities, where they teach and produce materials needed in their work. The last three and a half months are spent in reviewing their experiences, in visiting schools and related projects, preparing a thesis, and passing examinations to qualify for a special diploma.

Another recent booklet in the Office of Education's series is *Education in Taiwan* (Formosa) by Abdul H. K. Sassani, special-

ist in comparative education in the Near East, Far East, and Africa (United States Office of Education Bulletin 1956, No. 3. \$0.20). Americans have a natural interest in what goes on in one of the areas most closely tied to us by diplomatic and military bonds. We also have here the attempt of a Far Eastern people who are shifting from an educational system copied from Western Europe in the late nineteenth century (the Japanese) to the early twentieth-century Chinese adaptation of European and American models to their needs. In this adaptation to conditions in Taiwan, an able American mission has given valued help in recent years, notably in encouraging the development of community schools similar to those so successful in the Philippines. For an interesting, brief account of the recent work of American educators in the Far East, see "Education in the Far East" in *School Life* for April, 1956.

In Europe one of the most interesting and important "school reforms" in the postwar period is that which Sweden officially initiated in 1950 and to which brief reference was made in this column three years ago. In *School and Society* for April 28, 1956, Professor Leonard A. Ostlund, of the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, reports on steps taken to implement this carefully planned reform. One notable change was the extension of compulsory education for all from seven to nine years, so that today, in Europe, only the United Kingdom has a longer period (ten years) of compulsory education for all. The plan calls for a gradual increase in the number of *Enhetsskolan* ("unity" or "comprehensive" schools). Progress here has been slow, for only 8 per cent of the school population, 7-14 years old, were enrolled in such schools two years ago. In the last year of compulsory education (the ninth year), "the student chooses one of the following areas: university preparatory, general, or vocational." From 15 to 20 per cent of the students go into studies oriented toward university work; 25-30 per cent concentrate on languages or clerical work; the largest group divides its time equally between study and part-time em-

ployment. There are very careful and comprehensive plans for the extensive use of psychological tests, for the provision of vocational information by teachers especially trained in guidance and counseling, aided by special consultants under the Royal Labor Board.

#### THE SOCIAL STUDIES

**D**URING the past six or seven years the National Council for the Social Studies has been publishing 4-8 page bulletins in its "How To Do It" series. Now revised editions of some of the series are appearing. This year's list includes the following: Number 4, *How To Use a Bulletin Board* by Marion L. Ryan; Number 5, *How To Use Daily Newspapers* by Howard H. Cummings and Harry Bard; and Number 8, *How To Use Recordings* by Richard A. Sigelkow.

The suggestions by Cummings and Bard are especially helpful to the teacher who wants to use the study of current affairs as a contribution to the development of critical insight. A great deal of sound sense is summarized in the paragraphs which develop these seven points:

1. Do the headlines accurately describe the news account?
2. Is the news account slanted?
3. Is important news treated adequately?
4. Are controversial events reported impartially?
5. Does the newspaper distinguish between fact and opinion?
6. Are the editorials and commentaries effective?
7. Is it a free press?

Each of these bulletins sells for 25 cents and may be ordered from the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington 6, D.C.

Teachers and others engaged, or soon to be engaged, in curriculum revision should not overlook the materials published this year by the Council for the Advancement of Secondary Education. An overview of their work is contained in *Requisites for Economic Literacy* (Washington 6: The Council.

\$0.10), which is a thirty-page reprint of an article in the February, 1956, *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. In this work "economic literacy" is defined as:

1. Understanding of the basic economic areas and topics needed for making reasoned judgments and sound decisions.
2. Ability to read, with comprehension, as a result of familiarity with the economic terms commonly used in the press, the more thoughtful parts of the newspapers and magazines of the day.
3. Information and skill sufficient to perform efficiently and wisely such functions as making purchases in cash or on credit; maintaining a bank account; entering into loan, rental, insurance, hospitalization, or other contractual agreements; carrying out tax obligations of every kind; and voting intelligently on local, state, and national issues of economic import.

This article summarizes studies which are set forth in detail in these two 1956 publications of the Council: *Key Understandings in Economics: Derivation, Validation, and Evaluation of a Composite List of Basic Economic Topics*, and *Economics in the Press: A Survey of Magazines and Newspapers for Economic Terms*. The Council plans soon to publish teaching-learning units on several basic economic topics. Another useful publication for those interested in economic education is the *Bibliography of Free and Inexpensive Materials for Economic Education* published this year by the Joint Council on Economic Education (2 West Forty-sixth Street, New York 36, New York. \$0.50).

Despite the after-election-day letdown, it seems in order to mention two items of interest to students of politics. The October issue of *Social Education* is composed largely of short, scholarly articles on campaign issues and techniques, on recent Supreme Court decisions concerning the Electoral College, and on other institutional aspects of the presidency and vice-presidency. The second item, found in Philadelphia's *School News and Views* of April 16, 1956, describes the emphasis which the Philadelphia public schools put last spring upon in-service edu-

cation of teachers by bringing local leaders of the two major parties to teach selected teachers something about practical politics—not to make politicians of them but to give them the insight that comes from those whose knowledge is at firsthand. Emma L. Bolzau, assistant in curriculum, pointed out that unbiased examination of all sides of controversial problems is an objective of school programs. Participants were asked to suggest and evaluate methods of teaching political ideas and problems, with special attention to nominating methods, including the operation of the primary election in Pennsylvania, and to patronage problems.

One of the most useful collections of papers in an educational journal this year was that appearing in *Educational Leadership* last May, entitled "What Are We Finding Out from Related Fields?" Here leaders in such fields as economics, communications, anthropology, sociology, educational psychology, history, and political science suggest the "major contributions" which they believe their disciplines offer to educators. Especially provocative is the article by Professor Robert A. Walker, of Stanford University, who starts from the common interest that political scientists and most American educators have in the public schools as governmental institutions. After challenging a common use of the term "politics" and some other common misconceptions, Professor Walker adds:

The simple fact is that public school administrators are immersed in "politics," as the political scientist uses the term, for it means the same thing that the educator means when he talks about "community relations," getting the

"right people" elected to the school board, countering "attacks on the schools," or securing "parent participation." . . . Politics can be usefully defined as competition for influence.

Professor Walker goes on to point out two possible contributions from political scientists to education in the "politics" area: (1) what is taught about politics in the classroom and (2) the art of politics as practiced in educational administration. On the first point he has some rather caustic comments:

Political scientists, as outside observers, sometimes get the uneasy feeling that the schools have democratic debate and majority rule confused with unanimous acquiescence, the latter achieved more by boredom and resignation in the face of "unstructured" talk than by counting the votes on a well-defined issue. [The writer] has been told . . . that all political philosophies are just a matter of opinion. This fades readily into an excuse for having no opinion that the speaker is prepared to defend intelligently. How such a teacher can create other than confusion among his pupils about democracy and the logic that supports it is difficult to see.

Professor Walker later indicates that the second major area of the political scientist's contribution is that of public administration, especially in helping educators to a better understanding of basic principles of organization. In several sizable footnotes Professor Walker gives a short annotated bibliography of the "cream" of recent political-science studies of greatest value to educators and to others.

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

Shimer College  
Mount Carroll, Illinois

## RESTRUCTURING THE INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS OF A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLASS

LLOYD E. McCLEARY

*Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois*



MOST TEACHERS at some time find themselves teaching a class or working with a student group which seems unable to function harmoniously or productively as a group. The teacher usually finds that, in such groups, discussion leading to decision about group plans or procedures is difficult or impossible, much time is wasted, and work is not carried on persistently. Such groups are rarely analyzed by teachers or supervisors in a manner which permits the development of a more harmonious or productive group. Rather, they are labeled as "problem" or "troublesome" classes, "discipline" problems are expected, and the teacher establishes a *modus operandi* with the class by developing academic problems for the class to pursue or by assigning busy-work.

The problem of developing techniques and testing principles by which teachers and supervisors can more effectively analyze their classes and thus develop more productive groups was the basis of a project worked out at University High School, the laboratory school of the University of Illinois. The class chosen for this project was a junior high school English class. As the data reported below indicate, this class could easily have become one of those labeled "problem" or "troublesome."

### CONDITIONS SHOWING NEED FOR BUILDING GROUP HARMONY

From the beginning of the school year it was apparent that one class was not a harmonious group and that total group planning and general classroom manage-

ment were going to be difficult. Students sat about the room in definite groups and refused to break these seating arrangements except when directly asked to do so for certain kinds of work. The majority of the members, who had come from one elementary school in the city, immediately became the core of a clique. This clique expelled a few of its original members who did not accept the clique norms. Five girls stood out as isolates, and these girls found it impossible to voice opinions or contribute to class discussion without incurring unfavorable reactions from other students. The seven boys found associations among themselves, sat separately from the twenty-one girls, and refused to work in small mixed groups of any kind.

By using the sociometric technique of asking each student to list the names of two other students with whom he would like to work in writing biographical sketches of each other, a sociogram was prepared which identified three distinct groups and five isolates within the class. One group of girls viewed the teacher and the work ahead as not directly or deeply involving them. They asked: "How much do we have to do?" Another group of girls seemed to be task-oriented. These girls asked: "Is it OK to take [a given topic] for our group?" "We can't find material on ———. Do you have any?" "Instead of doing ———, we decided to do ———." The third group, consisting entirely of boys, was task-oriented when it could work by itself, but it viewed as a threat any intrusions by girls. The five isolates had individual problems which kept

them from taking on the behavior norms of any of these groups and developing roles in them.

The structure of the class presented the teacher with two kinds of difficulties: (1) the behavior of the first group caused disturbances within the school which required disciplinary action; (2) the systems of attitudes of each of the three groups became built into three distinct group-shared frames of reference which were in conflict with the other groups. The latter condition made total class planning almost impossible; reduced communication among members of the class and thus disrupted class discussions; forced the teacher to impose a good deal of the work upon the class (thus penalizing the task-oriented people); limited severely the approaches which the teacher could use in getting the class to take on work; and wasted much time and effort because of the different perceptions about the work to be done, about the teacher, and about other class members.

Conferences, written reactions from the students, group discussions, and observations revealed that the members of the various groups clearly perceived their own norms for class conduct, communicated about these norms, and applied strong social pressures upon members to adhere to them. By the end of the first three weeks, members of the first group identified themselves as the "baddy-baddies" and called the task-oriented group the "goody-goodies." Any direct attempts to bring the first group to examine its norms of behavior led to strong defensiveness from the group, increased the communication within the group, and resulted in more firm adherence to its norms.

The norms of each group were fairly easy to determine. However, an analysis of the norms of each group was not undertaken, for a direct attack upon behavior resulting from them would only have increased defensiveness within the cliques.

Following are some of the written reactions obtained from students at the close of the first marking period. Each student made

written statements about his work in an attempt to evaluate some of its aspects as an aid in preparing progress reports. These statements together with the sociogram gave a fairly clear picture of the group structure and the self-perceptions held by individual members of each group of girls.

#### BADDY-BADDIES

I feel that my major problem in school is that I lack courtesy. I often talk or act before I think. In class, this wastes time and might injure other people's feelings.

I think upperclassmen look at me as one of the kids that wears jeans and will give the school a bad reputation. I think the class looks at me as a member of the baddy-baddies.

I think my ideas of fun aren't quite the same as anyone else's. As one of my friends sums it up, "Amy likes fun, but isn't sure of what kind, so she sometimes gets in trouble while messing around."

My whole family has quite a temper. We all get flared up at practically anything. We never get anywhere. I argue with anyone. I disagree on even very small matters.

#### GOODY-GOODIES

I think that some people look at me as a little goody-goody and some maybe as a friend. I am a slightly old-fashioned person with too strict ideas at times, and stubborn when I get them.

I have the belief that most of the people in the room think I am prissy. This makes me feel self-conscious.

I think maybe I can do better if I pick out the people who I know like me pretty well and concentrate on speaking to them.

#### ISOLATES

I am too shy to make many friends but, when I try not to be so shy, I get all blubbered up. I am certainly not a leader because I am easily pushed around, but I try to cooperate with my classmates.

I'm very forward. One of my problems is that I think I am too forward with people. Sometimes they look as if they think I'm plain crazy when I act like this.

I don't think I'm very popular with the class. They seem to look down their noses at me, call me stupid, and try to evade my presence.

I seem to be caught in a vicious circle—the less I think of myself, the less other people think of me; the less other people think of me, the less I think of myself.

#### THE TEACHER'S PLAN

A unit on biography was chosen to supply the tasks which were used to restructure interpersonal relations within the class. The kinds of activities which were undertaken during this unit are outlined as follows.

1. A large number of biographical sketches of well-known persons was placed in the room, and each member of the class was asked to read two sketches. The aim was to find out what kind of personality the person had, why he had the personality he seemed to have, and what traits he possessed which the class member felt to be important to the person's success. The class was told that each member would later be asked to write a biographical sketch of some other student and that this reading was in preparation for that assignment.

2. As questions were raised about personality traits (how personality is developed, whether it can be changed, and the like), the teacher held short discussions to determine the kinds of things the members desired to learn about personality. The attention of the class was focused upon what each member felt he should know about personality in order to write a sketch. A number of books which dealt with personality development were put on the reading shelf in the room. The students discussed the kinds of things which influenced personality and how one could evaluate his own personality. Another teacher was brought in at this point so that he could later be used as an observer.

3. The members were paired off for interviews to gain information for writing their sketches. A preliminary list of questions was developed and written on the blackboard to get the interview started, and the class discussed ways of conducting the interview. The teacher asked each student to list the three people with whom he felt he had worked the least. The teacher then made the

pairings to keep close friends from writing sketches of each other. A biographical sketch of each student was thus obtained.

4. Using his written evaluations (already mentioned), and the biographical sketch written about him, each student was asked to write an autobiographical sketch.

5. Finally, the class was assigned the job of dividing into small groups to read a full-length biography and to discuss the personality of the subject of the book.

This sequence of tasks seemed to offer the normal sort of academic work which could be expected in almost any classroom in English. To it were added devices both for manipulating the class and for checking those factors which give indications of group harmony.

#### THE PLAN IN OPERATION

The general class situation at the end of the first marking period has been described. Sociograms as of October 1 and December 1 showed the persistence of the three groups from the beginning of the school year until the beginning of the teaching unit on biography. Each group definitely provided motive satisfactions for its members; and the members of each group communicated about their satisfactions, established norms, and developed role systems for their groups. The members of the groups found their own membership attractive enough that relations within the groups became quite stable and persisted throughout their school activities. The groups were able to maintain their identity, and this exclusiveness provided further solidarity for them.

Efforts to develop group harmony in this class were directed by two aims: (1) to increase the individual's sense of belonging by working with individuals upon the factors which seemed to impede their taking a satisfying role in the total class and (2) to develop the conditions associated with group harmony by providing for the total class some activities which would lead to the development of norms of operation acceptable to all members.

In the initial stages of the classwork, the

teacher determined the work of the class, and the class was kept in the usual teacher-to-pupil class arrangement. The biographical sketches studied were not chosen on any particular basis, except that they described people who had served others and who might be said to have the personality characteristics of a secure individual. Some subjects of the biographies were Lou Gehrig, Clara Barton, Eleanor Roosevelt, Ralph Bunche, Bernard Baruch, and Will Rogers.

As the discussions concerning personality developed, most of the work of the class revolved about leads offered from the students. At this point the teacher began to assume the role of planning leader and resource person; the other teacher, who was used as an observer, was introduced; and the materials on personality were placed at the disposal of the students.

As the class discussed its problems and solutions to them, the teacher's major function was to point out alternatives and offer new suggestions. It was felt that such a teacher role would create freer communication among members so that individual, as well as group, problems could be aired.

The attempts to alter the interpersonal relations of the class members began when preparations were made to carry on interviews preparatory to writing biographical sketches. This activity was actually chosen as a task which would hold possibilities for changing the students' perceptions of one another and for building communication among members concerning satisfactions growing out of the classwork, thus providing a basis for establishing class norms of behavior. Using choices listed by students, the teacher paired the members of the class, taking care to cut group lines as much as possible and to associate the isolates where the best possibilities for acceptance seemed to lie.

The leading questions developed by the students to open the interviews were of a positive nature. Interesting incidents, travels, hobbies, likes and dislikes, talents, and so on were to be probed. The sketches were favorable to all members, and many

were read aloud or were made available to the rest of the membership.

As a preparation for writing his autobiographical sketch, each student took the information derived from his own personal evaluation, the biographical sketch, and the readings on personality and attempted to define his personality problems and the difficulties he felt in trying to work with others. The teacher treated these evaluations as confidential. He compiled a list of problems common to more than one member which seemed to offer some possibilities for serious examination by the class and for the development of inclusive norms concerning the function of the class. Following are some of the kinds of problems raised. The reactions of the teacher-observer with regard to the group's progress in setting norms for itself are in brackets following each question raised by the teacher.

1. Do we argue and insist upon having our way about things which don't really matter? [The class seemed to feel that some students' opinions were not valued or given serious consideration in class discussions and planning sessions. Class members made decisions on the basis of friendships and not so much on the value of the contributions. The class had difficulty keeping this point separate from general courtesy.]

2. Do we waste time and injure others by talking out in class and not giving others a chance? [Most students agreed that this was a problem. Many examples of "running down" others' contributions were given. The question, "What kind of comments should be ruled out?" brought consensus concerning such behavior as saying "Oh!" in a disgusted or impatient tone, hissing, or laughing at comments or mistakes.]

3. Should all members be expected to pay attention when classmates are offering comments? [There was rationalization about why certain class members read, worked on an assignment, or did other things when students not accepted by them were carrying on the discussion. The class seemed to try to leave the way open to continue this practice.]

4. Do we often refuse to allow a classmate to join a work group because we don't like him personally? [The comment was made that in such cases dislike usually comes because the per-

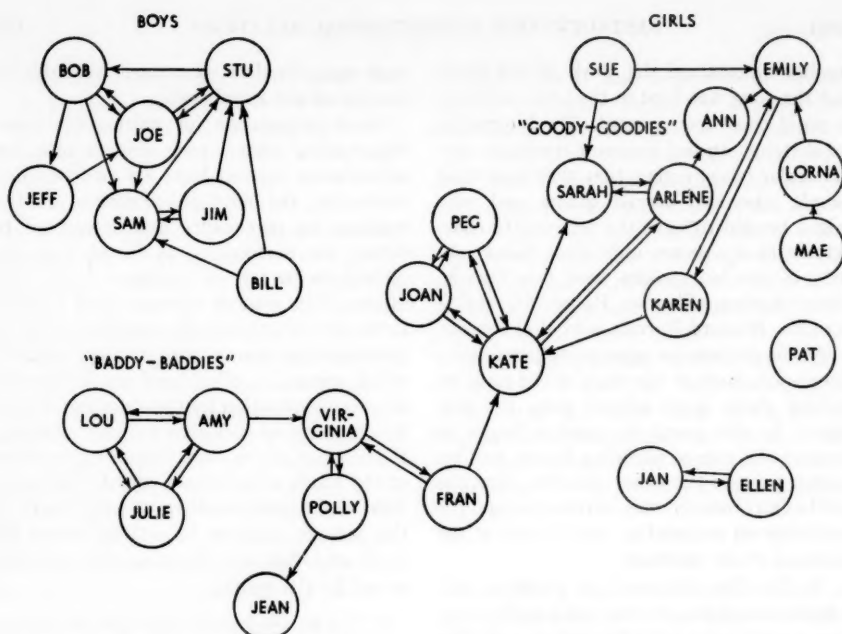


FIG. 1.—Sociogram representing choices of work partners made by students on December 1, before the start of activities designed to improve group structure. Five isolates were found. Pat, Ann, and Jean were absent. All names are fictitious.

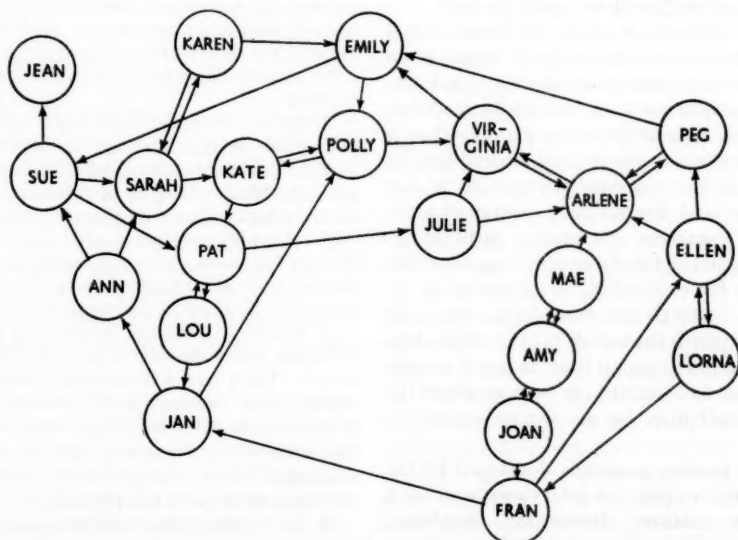


FIG. 2.—Sociogram representing choices of work partners made by girls on December 18, after carrying on activities designed to improve group structure. No isolates were found. Jean was absent. All names are fictitious.

son cannot do a good job and is a burden to the group. The teacher asked whether students ever accepted one person who would be a burden and excluded another, and an example of such a situation was offered. The comments were that someone you liked better might be accepted while someone you didn't like as well might be rejected. The comments seemed to run to agreement that the work was the important thing, not the person, and that everyone should be given a chance.]

5. Do we treat too harshly a person who makes a mistake before the class? [The teacher pointed out that many students said they felt

titles of books on the board, have each student make two choices, and have a committee arrange the groups. A check sheet was used by the observer during this session, and data for a sociogram were collected by the teacher.

Information for the sociogram was obtained by asking each student to list two persons with whom he would like to work, so that, if a student did not get his choice of book, he would be put with his choice of work partner. The same check sheet and sociogram technique had been used by the

TABLE 1

MEAN SCORES OF STUDENTS ON TWO ADMINISTRATIONS OF A SCALE DESIGNED TO REVEAL CHANGES IN ATTITUDES TOWARD CLASS MEMBERS AND TOWARD CLASSWORK\*

Item	Mean (December 1)	Mean (December 18)	Difference	Level of Significance of Difference†
1. Classmates are kind and helpful.....	3.00	2.59	0.41	10% or above
2. I get into the work groups I choose....	2.42	2.11	.31	20%-30%
3. I can make comments freely without being ridiculed and embarrassed.....	2.88	2.42	.46	5%
4. In general I enjoy my work as a sub- Freshman.....	1.65	1.52	.13	Not significant
5. I prefer to work and study alone rather than with others.....	3.31	2.56	.75	1%
6. I agree with the comments of classmates about what we should and should not do	2.65	2.14	.51	5%-10%
7. I am interested in the group projects and enjoy working on them.....	2.16	1.81	0.35	10%

\* The responses to the attitude scale were assigned the following values: "always," 1; "usually," 2; "sometimes," 3; "seldom," 4; "never," 5.

† In the computation of the significance of the differences, no correction was made for correlation of the two sets of scores. Since there is a strong case for assuming a positive correlation, the obtained standard error is certain to be larger than the true standard error. Consequently the true level of the significance of the difference is higher than that reported here.

a difficulty in talking before the class. Some attributed this to shyness, but several members indicated that they thought such a feeling came because the class seized upon mistakes of members and because the class was not an attentive audience.]

After summarizing those things about which a definite verbal consensus had been reached, the teacher asked if the class would be willing to try to apply these agreements to its next piece of group work. The class was told that discussion groups were to be organized to read, discuss, and analyze a full-length biography. The class was then asked how it should go about organizing groups to carry out its final piece of work for the unit. The class decided to list the

observer and the teacher in a planning session for the prior unit of work so that comparisons could be made. A teacher-constructed attitude scale was used as part of the evaluation of each unit of work, and a rating scale was made in an attempt to determine any attitude change.

#### EVALUATION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The devices used to measure the changes that were induced included sociograms, objective and subjective observations, an attitude scale, and self-evaluations of subjects.

*Sociograms.*—Figures 1 and 2 indicate that the group structure was altered in such

a way that groups were more closely integrated into the total class. Isolates were able to assume roles in the resulting role system so that no isolates appeared in the sociogram of December 18. (Boys' choices of December 18 were not diagrammed because no substantial change occurred.)

*Attitude scale.*—The attitude scale was one of several evaluation devices used at the end of each unit of work. Other devices were subject-matter tests, ratings of individuals and groups, teacher rating, and so on. The attitude scale was administered anonymously, and because of its regular use for unit evaluation, it is not likely to be a biased instrument in terms of its use in this project.

Table 1 shows the mean scores of the class for the two administrations of the attitude scale on December 1 and 18. The data show that the members' perception of group attractiveness was increased. Item 6 seems to indicate a wider sharing of group frames of reference. Items 3 and 7 indicate that the group had become more task-oriented.

*Observer's report.*—There was a decrease both in the number of tension-bearing remarks and in the number of individuals to whom such remarks were directed, but no significant conclusions can be derived, from this information, concerning the original groups. In general, the decrease of tension or threat within the class substantiates the results on Item 3 of the attitude scale.

*Conclusion.*—It is reasonable to conclude from an analysis of the objective data obtained and from subjective observation that group harmony was enhanced in this class. The behavior norms of the class changed in such a way that conditions of threat were re-

duced and individuals found satisfaction in performing group tasks. The wholesome group climate that was established facilitated communications about satisfactions which pertained to the tasks and to the individuals in the group.

#### IN SUMMARY

A common phenomenon in schools is the failure of certain classes or groups to share understandings widely enough to work in harmony. A group atmosphere embodying unrecognized and divergent perceptions will disrupt discussion, waste time, and limit the approaches that the teacher can use. A real need seems to be to find means by which teachers are able to develop communication within groups by helping members establish enough mutually shared values to make valid plans and to carry on work harmoniously.

Research has shown that harmonious groups maintain group effort much more persistently in the presence of frustrations than do divided groups and that harmonious groups more fully take cognizance of individual goals.

A project such as that described here offers the teacher a tool to the understanding of the interpersonal relations of a group as they relate to the teaching process. The analysis is in terms of the *structure* of the relations and affords the teacher an opportunity to see the conditions which will enhance or impede learning and to predict the individuals or groups who will be affected by a given teaching approach. It permits the teacher to predict and to alter behavior without having to obtain detailed and complex information about each individual.

## TEACHING STUDENTS TO MAKE CHOICES

JACK R. FRYMIER

*University of Florida*



AMERICAN schools must teach children to make choices. Our entire American social, political, economic, and cultural organization exists because of, and is based upon, the phenomenon of choice. Indeed, if there is one factor which is characteristic of a free social order, something which distinguishes it from totalitarian organization, that factor is freedom to choose.

In a democracy, most choice is a personal, individual right. We choose at the polls and at the counter. We choose where and how we will live, what we will wear and eat. We can choose to do almost anything that suits our fancy, except those acts which infringe upon the rights of our fellow-man. Each day we choose a thousand times or more, and, after each choice, subsequent alternatives always appear.

Choice is also fundamental to personal existence. Unless we are able to make wise decisions, our very physical being may be endangered. The foods we select provide one example of this. Or we generally choose not to cross a street where there is heavy traffic, not to swim when we are tired, not to work near electrical outlets when we are wet. Most of us choose to drive our cars at a moderate speed rather than an excessive one, to have our teeth checked periodically, to see a doctor when we feel ill, and so on. All the choices we make are based on facts and knowledge or on belief and thought. These are integral parts of decision-making, but we must know how to choose as well.

Related to personal freedom in choice is personal responsibility. If we choose for ourselves, automatically and inherently we become responsible for the effects of our selection. If someone else decides things for us, he assumes the responsibility. If I decide to

read a book, the responsibility is mine. If someone else decides that I should read, he must check to see if and when I do the reading. He may even have to force me to fulfill his will. Choice is so essential to personal existence and to democracy, and it involves such responsibility, that American schools must find places and ways to teach children how to choose.

How can schools do this? How can children be taught to select in school? Allowing them to get experience and practice with the making of choices is perhaps the most sensible approach. There seem to be at least three areas in which children might be able to exercise choice while they are in school. These might be categorized as follows: (1) arrangements of routine matters, (2) choice of curriculum topics and problems, and (3) choice of the materials involved. We will examine each of these in turn.

### ROUTINE ARRANGEMENTS

In the realm of routine arrangements, in any school it would seem that students could, and should, play a major role in determining how to take attendance and report it; how to handle daily devotionals, announcements, excuses to leave the room, seating arrangements, bulletin boards; and who should be responsible for these matters.

If a child is deaf in his left ear, it is probably more advantageous to him and to the class if he sits on the left side of the room, but that is the exceptional situation. Most of the time, if students determine where they will sit and how the seats shall be arranged, they will tend to feel more secure and more at home, more ready to learn.

Students should be able to take responsibility for determining the rules for leaving

the room, whether it be check-out, hand-raising, pass slip, blackboard note, or other scheme. They should also be responsible for their actions while they are gone. Frequently teachers feel that only they are qualified to decide on such routine matters; or if there is a school-wide system, they feel compelled to enforce it to the letter, often without interpretation or question. It would seem more practical and meaningful for students to be allowed to develop, within the existing framework, their own variations, techniques, and procedures for abiding by these rules. Perhaps they could even question the existence of some of the rules.

If daily devotional periods are held, as is required by law in many states, the students could determine who would handle the readings or songs, what should be included, how these things should be presented, and so on. If such assemblies are not required, students could have some say in deciding whether or not they should be held. No one knows how many children grow up with a near-violent hatred for our "Pledge of Allegiance" just because they were required to say it every day. Well-meaning adults can destroy the spark of youth if they stifle young people and their creative ways.

#### CURRICULUM TOPICS AND PROBLEMS

What about curriculum topics and problems? Some persons will say that students have no rightful responsibilities here, that this is the teacher's province. The teacher is said to be strictly responsible for selecting, planning, and organizing material, units, and references, for determining how material shall be presented and evaluated; that is, whether to use maps, a chart, a talk, or discussion; whether Greek culture, history, literature, or philosophical contributions are the most important; whether labels or other devices will be utilized in the study of syntax. Many feel that these are decisions strictly and entirely within the teacher's realm. They are, in other words, professional choices.

The teacher is only one person, however, and there are usually thirty or more other

persons who are also involved. The students are the ones who should want to learn. If allowed to, they will determine methods and materials which are most meaningful to them when a wise and helpful teacher assists without forcing the way. One of the reasons that students frequently seem not to want to learn may be that they are not interested in the teacher's way. Unless teachers take children into their confidence and sincerely let them have an active part in determining the methods by which materials can be handled in every class, teachers will miss a golden opportunity to develop a closer relationship with their students which comes by showing trust in them. And of course students will miss the opportunity to develop their ability to choose. Students want a teacher's assistance, counsel, and help, but never his rule.

#### INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

How about the selection of materials to be used within the classroom? Teachers alone should decide these things, some will surely say, for teachers know better than do the students which materials are most worthwhile and most meaningful; which are most available; how they should be related to one another; and what books, films, persons, and places are most appropriate. Actually, only a little thought will point up the fact that, while the teacher may perhaps have better ideas than the students, thirty students most certainly will have some very definite ideas about what things they want to use to help them learn. They have questions they want answered. They have preferences regarding materials to study. What teacher can really say just what ought to be included in a course in world history or world literature? The very immensity of the whole gamut of man's recorded existence should shame any person into realizing that he alone should never try to judge. Experts have their proper role, but even an expert can never know all the aspirations and hopes and dreams of thirty or more students.

If a teacher wants to teach children rather

than material as such, it would seem that he ought to consider students' purposes and desires and experiences along with his own. To add his store of abilities and knowledge to those of the students will, without exception, result in more than the teacher's own store of knowledge and ability. Whatever they know, if the wise teacher will just add it to what he knows, the total will always exceed his own potential. As a group, a teacher and his students should be able to reach a better solution than any one of them could alone. It may take a little longer, but, if students have an opportunity of helping to choose what and how they will study, the responsibility will pass from the hands of the teacher to the hands of all, where it belongs. If the opportunity to choose is genuine, students will, with experience, assume the responsibility with gusto and reward. They want to learn things in which they are vitally involved, in a way which they feel is best and which they have helped create for their own particular situation. If there are mistakes, the mistakes will be their own. Learning will be both personal and meaningful to students if they can help choose.

#### RESTRICTIONS OFTEN PLACED ON STUDENTS' CHOOSING

However, many teachers limit choice. Many things that teachers do, consciously and unconsciously, restrict students' opportunities to choose. Some of these have already been implied. For instance, some teachers predetermine the methods, materials, units, sequences, movies, field trips, and the like, to be used in the instruction. This is just one of the ways in which teachers rob students of the chance to learn to choose; they do not let students try.

Another way in which teachers limit freedom to choose is to present false options to their students. By putting choices on a take-it-or-leave-it basis, they purport to be giving option. Actually they are forcing choice in a given direction. Such a method is autocracy, however labeled. Examples are the limited selections that some schools offer with their so-called "electives" or the impractical cur-

riculum offerings in some secondary schools. Lack of choice in this area may account to some degree for the high drop-out rate of secondary-school students. Why should they continue in a school if there is nothing there which they feel suits their particular needs?

When students take a teacher-made and teacher-determined examination, they have no opportunity to exercise choice. Often it might be more meaningful and more valuable for the teacher and his students to attack the problem of evaluation from an entirely different angle. For example, a personal conference is frequently a more satisfying and satisfactory evaluative tool and learning experience than is a written examination. Perhaps an oral quiz would do as well and take less time. Such devices as take-home tests, term papers, or individual or group reports may help the teacher know each student better and also help the students learn. Students actually like all these things when they feel the ideas have come from them. The type of situation in which the teacher is solely responsible for determining the how and why of evaluative criteria may fall short of an optimum goal. After all, tests should certainly be learning experiences, too, and there is no rule which says that they must always come between two bells. Tests are good and tests are needed, but students can also have a part in this aspect of their education.

Probably the worst type of so-called "choice" that is found in schools is the take-it-or-else kind. If a student is forced to do a certain thing or suffer specific consequences—consequences that are generally unstated and often unknown to him—he has no real option, choice just does not exist. We find this situation in many aspects of our educational system. Perhaps the most outstanding example is required attendance. Children attend school, or they are punished. Society itself has determined that this is one matter in which children shall not choose. Whether this decision is defensible or not is outside the realm of this discussion, but it is an example of a situation in which a student must do as he is told "or else."

There are other take-it-or-else situations which might well be considered. Students are required to "pay attention in class or fail," "turn in term papers or not play football," "show some interest [as if 'shown interest' indicated real interest] or your mark will go down." Actually, all aspects of the marking system as we now know it are examples of "take it or else." Marks are often really a lever rather than a measure, and they usually exert force in a negative way, at that. Regardless of the fact that this way is supposedly for the students' best interests, the exerting of force of any kind, psychological or physical, always restricts choice.

Another way in which teachers limit choice is to create a class atmosphere that limits involvement and participation. Choice can occur only when there is an option. If only one idea or concept is presented, only one factor is apparent, only one thing may be selected, there is no choice at all. Rather there is a take-it-or-leave-it or take-it-or-else situation. If teachers stifle controversial discussion (and what real discussion is not controversial?) or refuse to tolerate, or actually to pull out from the students, ideas which are contrary to their own, true choice cannot exist for students. True freedom of choice exists only when teachers create an atmosphere of permissiveness in which all students can project their own beliefs, opinions, and ideas about the point in question and in which each is free to choose as he sees fit.

#### EFFECT OF EXPERIENCE ON MAKING CHOICES

Often teachers who attempt to develop students' skill in making choices are surprised by the fact that the attempt fails when it is first tried. They see their good intentions and good ideas rejected by those whom they are trying to help. From a logical point of view, this result should be proof enough that students do not possess the skill and knowledge essential for democratic living. Although teachers should use this inability to the students' advantage, by providing intelligent leadership in helping children to choose, often it becomes an excuse

for the teacher to "run the whole show." Only if teachers work at teaching choice for a long, long time and in a united way, with great patience and with great skill, can they help children learn to choose intelligently.

Past experience is an important limit when one tries to teach children to choose. Other school experiences that a student has had will affect his ability to choose. His age, his home and family life, the groups of which he is a part—all play fundamental roles in his learning to choose. The very young, naturally, have had less experience with choosing than have older children. A child whose parents are extremely liberal will have had more opportunity to choose than a child whose parents decide which clothes he shall wear, who his friends shall be, which schools he shall attend, which sports he may participate in, and so on. The more experience and success he has in making choices, the more the teacher should expect of him.

If a child has had little or no opportunity to make at least some decisions for himself, he will not be able to proceed with any great finesse in the art of making decisions. Students whose experiences have been restricted will not welcome the idea. Indeed, they will probably rebel at the necessity of making decisions for themselves. If this responsibility has never been theirs, they will shy from it just because it is different and new.

Teachers must recognize this reluctance for what it is. They might even anticipate it. Their basic plan must always be to start with students where they are. If students have had limited experience in decision-making, the teacher must at first continue to shoulder most of the load. As rapidly as possible, however, he must arrange for the students to make more and more decisions about their learning. As they acquire experience and ability and knowledge and skill, they will more readily assume the responsibility for all their own actions, something teachers often expect automatically without teaching or preparing students for it at all. Students will become more adept at determining which methods and materials

will be most meaningful and beneficial to them as individuals and as a group. They will become more proficient in making choices.

#### HOW CAN CHOICE-MAKING BE TAUGHT?

Just where should a teacher start if he wants to develop in children an ability to choose? First and foremost, each teacher must look critically at his basic beliefs. He must decide which is more important, children or material. He must look at his own methods to see whether they help create fuller lives and more meaningful experiences for his students. He must ask himself if he really understands and believes in the concepts of liberty and freedom. He must decide what these things mean to him and what is their relation to the element of choice. These are serious, personal, and probing questions, but they need to be answered sincerely and without bias. No person can do this for another. Each must do it for himself.

Besides examining his own personal beliefs, each teacher can examine the situation in his own classroom. He can determine carefully the limits in areas in which children are not free to exercise choice. However, he must be positive that the limits are really necessary. Teachers often assume that children should not do such and such a thing simply because they never have done it before. The past can serve as a guide but should not serve as a rule.

Every teacher should carefully examine the routine procedures in his school and in his classroom. The methods which can be employed in each learning situation (certainly here each teacher has much leeway) and the materials with which he works should be checked in detail. It is in these two

areas, which some feel are the most restrictive, that teachers actually have the most freedom and can permit the maximum option. This "academic freedom," as it has been called, is the primary key.

Finally, teachers, parents, supervisors, and administrators must combine their efforts with those of students and work to create situations in which choice can function and thrive. Perhaps certain curriculum structures, such as the core curriculum, lend themselves better than others to freedom in making choices, but actually it will work in any type of curriculum structure—any type, that is, where teachers want to make it work.

#### SUMMARIZING COMMENT

American schools must teach children to choose. The importance and the very fate of democracy are tied up in the concept of individual choice. Unless people are able to exercise wise and careful judgments, there is no limit to the social depths into which they may fall. When individuals give the right and responsibility of choice to another person, they surrender themselves to a master and become slaves. But they will hardly give up the right and responsibility of choice if they have tried it. Teachers must give students the opportunity to choose in schools.

If teachers can develop opportunities for children to learn to choose well, the result will most certainly be more keen and questioning men; men who can inquire and discriminate; men whose approach to problems will be more scientific; men who have a keen desire to learn and know; men whose unflinching faith in the democratic process will never permit them to fall, from without or within, under totalitarian rule.

## THE ATTITUDE OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS TOWARD CERTAIN BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN

GEORGE A. W. STOUFFER, JR.  
*State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania*

★

A RECENT study (5) showed that the attitude of today's elementary-school teachers toward behavior problems of children had changed substantially from the attitudes of elementary-school teachers twenty-five years ago. Wickman's original classic investigation (6) of the attitudes of elementary-school teachers toward problem behavior of children was so influential in shaping public and professional opinion that it was thought worthwhile to repeat it, in an attempt to ascertain whether the passage of twenty-five years had produced any measurable change. The findings from the more recent study clearly indicate that the elementary-school teachers of today are more nearly in agreement with child-guidance clinic psychiatrists, psychologists, and psychiatric social workers, as to the relative seriousness of certain problems of child behavior, than were the elementary-school teachers of twenty-five years ago.

A sampling of persons working in the field of education generally agreed that there is a difference in the training and point of view of elementary-school teachers and secondary-school teachers. DeYoung sees the "secondary-school teachers as the best-educated members of the public school family" (2: 224). Gould and Yoakam state: "The secondary-school teacher needs more intensive specialization in his teaching fields than the elementary-school teacher" (4: 29). Crow and Crow see the secondary-school teachers as having "been trained to be independent in their areas of subject matter," with "little training in the application to their work of the principles of mental hygiene" (1: 335). The question arises whether

a difference might be found in the attitudes of secondary-school teachers compared with the attitudes of elementary-school teachers and mental hygienists toward the same behavior problems of children.

### SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURE OF THIS STUDY

Data for comparison were available through previous studies (5, 6) which concerned themselves with elementary-school teachers. In the present study the attitudes of secondary-school teachers toward the same behavior problems of children were measured in the same fashion as were the reactions of elementary-school teachers.

This study follows the pattern established by Wickman. Rating scales were submitted to secondary-school teachers, on which the teachers recorded their judgments of the seriousness of each of fifty behavior problems of children. They were directed to make their ratings at any point on a scale that was descriptively captioned to indicate an ascending degree of seriousness, from minimal concern on the part of the rater to judgment of the problem as a grave one. The calibrated scale contained twenty equal divisions, to facilitate statistical treatment of the data obtained.

The rating scale or questionnaire was administered to the secondary-school teachers with a set of directions for completing it. This form duplicated in every respect one completed by present-day elementary-school teachers, present-day mental hygienists, and the mental hygienists of Wickman's study. The directions and conditions for rating were identical. There was no time

limit for completing the ratings, and the wording of the directions was aimed at getting the rater's intellectualized attitude toward a behavior problem, not as to its effect at the moment, but as to its effect on a child's future development.

Sixty male and female secondary-school teachers co-operated in the study. The departments of the secondary-school curriculum represented were English, science, mathematics, social studies, business education, music, art, physical education, industrial arts, agricultural education, and home economics. While the majority of the raters taught in Pennsylvania, there was representation from at least six other states and the Territory of Hawaii. They taught pupils of various racial extractions and socioeconomic conditions, in rural and urban schools, and in schools with a variety of educational philosophies. All but three of the sixty held the Bachelor's degree, and fifteen had been awarded the Master's degree. The modal number of years of teaching experience was three, with a mean of ten and a range from one to twenty-eight years.

As noted above, the attitudes of present-day elementary-school teachers and the attitudes of psychologists, psychiatrists, and psychiatric social workers toward the seriousness of certain problems of children's behavior agreed more closely than did the attitudes of similar groups twenty-five years ago. This tendency toward agreement was attributed in part to an increased understanding of child growth and development gained through increased course work in psychology in teacher-training institutions. With this in mind, an attempt was made to survey the background of the sample of secondary-school teachers in terms of their course work in psychology. Of the sixty persons, forty-nine had completed course work in general psychology and in educational psychology; thirty-five said they had completed a course in tests and measurements; fourteen, a course in adolescent psychology; nine, a course in mental hygiene; seven, in child psychology; and eleven additional scattered courses in psychology

were reported. The mean number of courses for members of the sample was approximately three.

The respondents' familiarity with Wickman's study and the findings, which appear in seventeen of twenty recent books in the general field of mental hygiene, made it necessary to discard several completed questionnaires. An additional 12 per cent of the questionnaires used in the sample indicated that the raters had heard of Wickman's study but were not sufficiently familiar with it to influence their ratings.

#### COMPARISON OF RANKS GIVEN BEHAVIORS BY THREE GROUPS

When the data were collected and evaluated, the ratings on the fifty problems of child behavior made by the present-day elementary-school teachers, the child-guidance clinic mental hygienists, and the secondary-school teachers were organized to appraise the agreement of these three groups of persons. This was done by three methods. First, we considered the rank orders assigned by the three groups to the seriousness of the behaviors.

A limited amount of agreement was apparent. Two items of behavior, "Smoking" and "Whispering," were ranked 49 and 50, respectively, by each of the three groups. The two groups of teachers ranked only two other problems, "Easily discouraged" (Rank 10) and "Physical coward" (Rank 33), as being of the same degree of seriousness, while the secondary-school teachers and mental hygienists placed "Imaginative lying" (Rank 39) and "Interrupting" (Rank 47) in the same positions as to seriousness.

Of the ten problems rated the most serious by the secondary-school teachers, only three, "Stealing," "Unhappy, depressed," and "Cruelty, bullying," were found among the ten rated most serious by the mental hygienists. At the other end of the rank-order arrangement of problems, of the ten ranked least serious by the mental hygienists, there was agreement on the part of the secondary-school teachers only upon four ("Inquisitiveness," "Interrupting,"

"Smoking," and "Whispering and note-writing").

Inspecting the rank-order arrangement of the problems showed that there was very little difference between the ten problems of child behavior rated most serious and the ten rated least serious by the two groups of teachers.

#### STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF RANKS GIVEN BY THREE GROUPS

Since the first appraisal of the relative seriousness assigned to the behavior problems of children by the three groups did not seem to be especially productive, an examination of the data in a more precise fashion was made.

An evaluation for agreement or disagreement between the secondary-school teachers and the mental hygienists was made by determining whether the means of their ratings on the same items of problem behavior showed statistically significant differences. This technique revealed that the ratings of the secondary-school teachers and those of the mental hygienists showed no significant differences for the following behavior problems of children:

Unhappy, depressed	Lack of interest in work
Cruelty, bullying	Physical coward
Resentful	Sullenness
Domineering	Inattention
Suggestible	Imaginative lying
Nervousness	Attracting attention
Overcritical of others	Thoughtlessness
Temper tantrums	Stubbornness

The behavior problems that the clinicians rated as more serious than did the secondary-school teachers are shown below. The differences for these problems were significant.

Unsocial, withdrawn	Suspiciousness
Enuresis	Dreaminess
Fearfulness	Tattling
Shyness	Restlessness
Sensitiveness	

The behavior problems that the clinicians rated as less serious than did the secondary-

school teachers include the following. Again the differences were significant.

Stealing	Carelessness in work
Untruthfulness	Laziness
Destroying school materials	Quarrelsomeness
Impertinence	Impudence
Unreliableness	Tardiness
Cheating	Disorderliness
Truancy	Slovenly in personal appearance
Easily discouraged	Profanity
Disobedience	Inquisitiveness
Selfishness	Interrupting
Obscene notes, talk	Smoking
Heterosexual activity	Whispering and note-writing
Masturbation	

It would appear that over, objective behavior is rated as more serious by the secondary-school teachers, while the mental hygienists consider more serious the subjective type. Interestingly enough, these same inferences were drawn from the data found in a similar study concerned only with elementary-school teachers and mental hygienists (5).

The evaluation was continued by examining for statistical significance the means of the ratings given by the secondary-school teachers and by the elementary-school teachers. There were no significant differences between the ratings of the two groups of teachers on the following behavior problems of children:

Stealing	Enuresis
Untruthfulness	Carelessness in work
Unhappy, depressed	Overcritical of others
Impertinence	Quarrelsomeness
Cruelty, bullying	Tardiness
Cheating	Disorderliness
Truancy	Profanity
Easily discouraged	Imaginative lying
Disobedience	Attracting attention
Selfishness	Inquisitiveness
Obscene notes, talk	Tattling
Resentful	Interrupting
Domineering	Smoking
Masturbation	Whispering and note-writing

The behavior problems that the elementary-school teachers rated as more serious than did the secondary-school teachers in-

clude the following. These differences were significant.

Unreliableness	Physical coward
Unsocial, withdrawing	Sullenness
Heterosexual activity	Shyness
Suggestible	Sensitiveness
Nervousness	Inattention
Laziness	Suspiciousness
Impudence	Thoughtlessness
Temper tantrums	Dreaminess
Lack of interest in work	Stubbornness
Fearfulness	Restlessness
Slovenly in personal appearance	

"Destroying school materials" was the only behavior problem that the elementary-school teachers rated less serious than did the secondary-school teachers, or, conversely, that the secondary-school teachers rated as more serious than did the elementary-school teachers.

In a third method of evaluation, correlations were obtained by arranging the means of the ratings by the secondary-school teachers in order of seriousness, from the highest to the lowest, and listing opposite these the corresponding ratings of the elementary-school teachers. The matched means were then converted into ranks, which in turn were converted into per cent positions. The per cent positions were changed to "scores" by the use of Hull's table. In computing the coefficient of correlation between the matched scores, Pearson's product-moment formula was employed. A coefficient of correlation of  $.88 \pm .03$  was obtained between the ratings by the two groups of teachers. This would seem to indicate a rather substantial amount of general agreement between them.

When the ratings of the secondary-school teachers and the mental hygienists were correlated, a coefficient of correlation of  $.49 \pm .11$  was obtained. In a previous study (5) a coefficient of correlation of  $.61 \pm .09$  was obtained between the ratings by elementary-school teachers and the ratings by mental hygienists. One might speculate, on the basis of these findings, that the elemen-

tary-school teachers and the mental hygienists were in greater agreement concerning the seriousness of the fifty problems of child behavior than were the secondary-school teachers and the mental-hygiene experts.

On the ratings for "Untruthfulness," "Impertinence," "Suggestible," "Obscene notes," "Heterosexual activity," and "Masturbation," there were large standard deviations, indicating considerable variance of opinion among the secondary-school teachers on the seriousness or importance of these six problems.

#### CONCLUSIONS REACHED

From these data certain tentative conclusions can be drawn. Many of the problems which the secondary-school teachers think to be more serious than the mental hygienists represent an objective type of behavior. The same findings were made in a study (5) involving elementary-school teachers and mental hygienists. Probably these behaviors are problems that outrage the teachers' moral sensitivities and authority or that frustrate their immediate teaching purposes.

The two groups of teachers agree substantially as to the degree of seriousness of twenty-eight of the fifty behavior problems of children. Only one problem, "Destroying school material," is rated more serious by the secondary-school teachers than by the elementary-school teachers. The remaining twenty-one were rated less serious by the secondary-school teachers than by the elementary-school teachers. Would it be safe to conclude that, in general, the secondary-school teacher, as a subject-matter specialist, concerns himself less with the seriousness of behavior problems in children and their implications for the child's future adjustment? This conclusion would not seem to be entirely justified since our criterion group (the mental hygienists) share, to some extent, the opinion of the secondary-school teachers on certain of the problems. One might conjecture that the secondary school does not ordinarily pro-

vide the teacher with as prolonged an exposure to any one child as does the elementary school and that consequently the student's behavior problems, while real and felt, lose their significance as individual and unique problems. Then, too, perhaps the attitude toward the behavior of adolescents has become so accepting that the problems which cause concern to the elementary-school teacher lose their seriousness when seen through the eyes of secondary-school teachers.

Regardless of the reasons, this investigation of the attitudes taken by secondary-school teachers toward children's behavior shows that the more extroversive reactions, such as impertinence, destroying school material, disobedience, interest in the opposite sex, interrupting, profanity, and inquisitiveness, are the ones felt to be the most serious and important. These behaviors, while disturbing to good order and the dignity of the classroom, are not felt by the clinicians to be of serious significance in affecting the child's future development. Withdrawing tendencies, such as unsocialness, fearfulness, shyness, sensitiveness, suspiciousness, and dreaminess, which clinicians view with concern as possibly symptomatic of rather serious maladjustment, were rated by the

secondary-school teachers as being relatively unimportant.

These secondary-school teachers, owing, no doubt, to practical schoolroom considerations, evaluated children's behavior in terms of good order and recognition of authority. The success of the teacher is most often measured by the educational achievement of the child, rather than by the teacher's consideration, through attention to good mental-hygiene principles, of the welfare of the child.

#### REFERENCES

1. CROW, L. D., and CROW, A. C. *High School Education*. New York: Odyssey Press, 1951.
2. DEYOUNG, CHRIS A. *Introduction to American Public Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1942.
3. FENTON, NORMAN. *Mental Hygiene in School Practice*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1948.
4. GOULD, GEORGE, and YOAKAM, GERALD ALAN. *The Teacher and His Work*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1947.
5. STOUTER, G. A. W., JR. "Behavior Problems of Children as Viewed by Teachers and Mental Hygienists," *Mental Hygiene*, XXXVI (April, 1952), 271-85.
6. WICKMAN, E. K. *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1932.

## READING THROUGH TIME

HAROLD MORRILL

Springfield, Vermont



THE STIRRING of interest that comes from striding back through time is often observed when one is counseling adult readers. It is hard to feel at home in a different world, that of the Massachusetts Puritans, for instance. But who is not helped at once by catching a glimpse among the Puritans of the old-fashioned self-denial we knew in our own grandfathers? This common experience may suggest to teachers that there is no psychological imperative for the habit of starting a study unit in the remoter past and working toward the present. When we walk, we cannot help going from the near to the far; it cannot be paradoxical to do the same in time.

In leading adults or secondary-school students into the literature and history of our continental expansion, the route back from the present has an obvious advantage. Students will all be familiar with the Wild West, perfectly at home when reading about it. There is scarcely any cultural threshold to trip over if we wish to take them thence to the beginning of the cowboy era, or back to the California gold rush and then to the great trek over the Oregon Trail. Another forty years back, and they can feel the same spirit of striking out for new country in the lonely adventures of Daniel Boone in the old Middle West. That journey takes the students from the last days of the frontier to the first days of the American republic, and, all the way, easy associations prepare the students for eras less and less familiar.

### FROM COWBOYS TO THE GOLD RUSH

The first "western" novel in American literature was also the best: Owen Wister's

*The Virginian*. It is a good story, but it is not romanticized. Being true to the atmosphere of the West of its times, it leads the student to a sense of reality. If teachers intend to promote good reading habits that will stay with their abler students after they leave school, it is to be done by cultivating the feeling that literature has a real relation to life. The adult begins to perceive soon enough that life is a good deal more prosaic than fiction makes it out to be—the fiction of popular books, the movies, or of his own dreams. But no one ever heard of a hobbyist who did not have a sense of romance about real things. By showing the student the romantic aspects of hard reality in the West, the teacher opens up for him a lifelong pleasure.

To multiply the student's own curiosity by the enthusiasm of a group, a particular theme may be taken for dramatization. Owen Wister begins a chapter in *The Virginian* with a revealing analysis of that sentence of the Declaration of Independence that states, "... all men are created equal." Now, Wister says in effect, physically and mentally individuals are not equal; what was meant is this: the law must be equal for all, it must not prevent any boy from showing the man he can become and the work he can do. In the Far West of Wister's day the emphasis was different from ours. While we should think at once of opportunity, they thought first of survival. They were building a big country. The need for self-reliance explains the hardness in the Virginian's character. Use this need for the theme of the dramatization. Ask the group to test its existence in nonfiction. Theodore

Roosevelt's experience in the cowboy world will serve. Suggest a stage in semidarkness, with a half-dozen "Westerners" seated around a campfire (electric). After a singing overture, the story-telling begins.

From these hints the project should begin to take shape. The students will ransack so lively a book as Hermann Hagedorn's *Roosevelt in the Bad Lands* for the best incidents in which the young T.R., a college-bred man from the East, speaking with a Harvard accent and wearing thick glasses, proved himself a self-reliant equal of the men he met in the West of the 1880's. These anecdotes can be told around the campfire. "T.R." and his "friends" can jump up to demonstrate (discreetly) how the action went. Incidents like that of the snake in the sleeping bag make a good climax as the fire dies down. Roosevelt's own *Hunting Trips of a Ranchman* will furnish stories.

Remind the group which is writing the dialogue that repetition and more repetition is the formula for a gossipy and intimate effect. The several characters who are supposed to have seen the incidents must break in to repeat parts of each yarn from their different points of view. Once the script is settled, however, it must be strictly followed. Every important point must be made twice or three times over. Action, of course, counts as one repetition and should usually be preferred to dialogue.

Another day the class can follow the cowboy spirit into international relations. Theodore Roosevelt brought together a large number of his particularly strenuous kind of Westerners and Easterners to form the "Rough Riders" regiment in the Spanish-American war. There is material in the biographies of Roosevelt and Leonard Wood and in T.R.'s own book, *Rough Riders*, to show how these men, from such different backgrounds, conducted themselves with bravery and fortitude, to Teddy's huge satisfaction. Not long before, his friend Rudyard Kipling had written, in "The Ballad of East and West," a keynote for this kind of democracy:

But there is neither East nor West, Border, nor Breed, nor Birth,  
When two strong men stand face to face, though they come from the ends of the earth!

Moving back through time to the California gold rush, we keep the horses and saddles and the camping-out atmosphere, but we meet men of every class and occupation who have been lured to the West. In a short story by Bret Harte there is more of the variety of human nature than in a shelf of modern "western" stories. After his tales have yielded their own interest, they may be used to point the students to the great westward movement of pioneers seeking land, not gold. No one can fail to be moved by the words of the father, in Harte's story "A Ship of '49," who has made it through to the West and is settled in a quiet home. Scenes for dramatization are suggested when we hear him speak of his daughter, who is now attracting suitors but to him is still the child whose picture was engraved on his heart in the journey across the plains:

P'raps you've seen her prance round in velvet bonnets and white satin slippers, an sich. But that ain't the Rosey ez I knows. It's a little child ez uster crawl in and out the tailboard of a Missouri wagon on the alkali-pizoned plains, when there wasn't another bit of God's mercy on yearth to be seen for miles and miles. It's a little girl ez uster hunger and thirst ez quiet and mannerly ez she now eats and drinks in plenty; whose voice was ez steady with Injuns yellin' round her nest in the leaves in Sweet-water ez in her purty cabin up yonder. *That's* the girl ez I knows!

#### FROM THE OREGON TRAIL TO THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY

The class should know that there are new treasures of narrative and illustration in the recent books on the West. Bibliographies are hardly necessary, since the public libraries are buying regularly many of the big volumes, which are usually studded with photographs or drawings made in the old

times on the spot. For a student who wishes to read, and perhaps to write about, Custer or Sitting Bull, say, there are new books that present the truth in a broad setting. Somehow, too, the reality of the romantic figures of history strikes the mind forcibly when we see their stories related to the growth of modern highways and cities in the series of books on the histories of the forty-eight states. The series on the rivers of America is also rich in interest.

The students may notice that the Indians are everywhere in these books, although we heard little or nothing of them from Wister and Roosevelt. Here is another possibility for writing by students. Early accounts of the Oregon Trail, such as Lewis H. Garrard's *Wah-To-yah and the Taos Trail*, John T. Irving's *Indian Sketches*, and Washington Irving's *A Tour on the Prairies*, describe encounters with the Indians. The state histories supply leads for studying the tragic vanishing of the Indians from each area. Parkman, in his *Oregon Trail*, written more than a hundred years ago, tells of Indians riding up to inspect the little party he was with. The stolid pantomime causes a shiver. A feeling arises that Indians would never adopt or adapt, that tragedy impends for both races.

Back another generation, and we reach the hunting and trapping civilization of the Middle West in its early days. With it we

also meet the founding fathers of our political system. Let the students learn and tell how these men applied the proposition that all men are created equal when they found in their hands a chance to make that proposition effective in new country. The Northwest Ordinance of 1787 established principles of government for the area that is now Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and a part of Minnesota. In the Ordinance the Congress prohibited slavery in that territory, and it provided that states set up there should be equal in political rights to the thirteen original states.

#### ANOTHER LEAD

Thus we finish a journey of territorial expansion, from Wyoming to Philadelphia. We have met sunshine and cold, laughter and tears, and blood and sweat indeed. But the teacher's work is never done, and we may observe that the antislavery Ordinance of 1787 makes a logical start for another course of study. The teacher this time may prefer the chronological order, passing from the cotton gin and Sir Walter Scott's *Waverley* to *Uncle Tom's Cabin* and the Dred Scott decision permitting slavery in the territories, and on to the Civil War, testing whether government of the people could long endure. This is another great teaching theme for the co-operative use of history and literature.

## HOW MUCH SPORTS COMPETITION IS OPTIMUM FOR HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS?

CHARLES C. COWELL

*Purdue University*

\*

CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGISTS, who study the individual in relation to his environment, seek to discover how the forces within the environment affect the personality and mental health of people. The question of competition involves human personality, social relations, and the conduct of nations. To what extent are we innately competitive? Cultural anthropologists have pretty well proved that the form and extent of competition are defined by the values of a given culture. In other words, we have some evidence that children are not born intensely competitive. Have we "foisted intensive competitive methods upon children in our schools in contradiction to their true natures?"<sup>1</sup>

Many biologists and sociologists would claim that whatever progress the world has made, biologically and socially, has been the result of co-operation rather than competition. It is true that we are *social* to the degree that we deal with others as human beings like ourselves and not as tools or obstacles to our own ends. Education, in the broadest sense, is synonymous with the socialization of the person.

### A REALISTIC VIEW OF COMPETITION

It is plain that individual and social progress lies in the direction of co-operative evolution; yet some conflict and competition are essential in the development of personality and the determination of status. These are the inevitable concomitants of social change. We cherish individual differences in our democracy. However, unless competition is understood and directed, it can lead

to personal maladjustment and social degeneration, and world conflict.

It is plain that individual and social progress lies in the direction of co-operative evolution; yet the "each-for-himself" mode of life develops qualities of sturdy independence and originality. An optimum degree of competition quickens metabolism, stimulates achievement, develops the personality, and encourages social change.

As teachers and administrators, we must be educational statesmen and guide the community co-operative evolution of groups, yet at the same time retain some of the developmental rewards of competitive individualism. In this task the word *optimum* becomes highly important.

Uniquely, sports and games involve both competition and co-operation based on a system of values or rules of conduct which guide the social behavior of the players. The rules tell us what conduct is expected of us and what to expect of others; they make a game possible by giving these common understandings to all who play. They also supply the basis for individual behavior and united team action as well.

The word *optimum* means the best or favorable degree, condition, or amount for most favorable development. Obviously the important thing is the proper dosage of competition. We might well encourage research to find sound conclusions for the following questions:

1. Are the mountainous efforts of a state basketball tournament for girls (or boys) worth the anthill of results?
2. Do intense rivalries harm competitors physically and emotionally?
3. To what extent does intensive competition lead coaches and students to compromise ethics and health?

<sup>1</sup> Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey, *Education and the Nature of Man*, p. 97. New York: Harper & Bros., 1952.

4. Do the threads of fellowship and sympathy snap and actual feelings of hostility toward other individuals and groups result?
5. To what extent does excessive competition result in anxieties, fears, phobias, and insecurities which reduce the efficiency of people?

The following data attest to the fact that women physical-education teachers have approached the optimum point more closely than the men and have more nearly achieved the true educational purposes of sports in their physical-education programs.

#### RESULTS OF A SURVEY

A questionnaire was sent to 455 superintendents of schools in towns and cities of

in cities with populations of 70,000-100,000 and of 6,000-10,000. The former indicate that 40.6 per cent of the cities have some interschool competition, while 42.7 per cent of the latter category so report. In samples of cities in the 40,000-70,000 and 10,000-40,000 population categories, the per cents were 28.1 and 33.3 respectively.

However, while 16 per cent of the smaller towns (6,000-10,000) report membership in *intercity* leagues in some sport for girls, only about 2 per cent of the large cities (70,000-100,000) report such arrangements. The per cents of schools having intercity school competition in *arranged* leagues for girls in one or more sports are as follows: Southern,

TABLE 1  
PER CENT OF SCHOOLS HAVING AT LEAST OCCASIONAL TEAM COMPETITION FOR GIRLS, BY GEOGRAPHIC DISTRICT

Sport	Eastern District	Central District	Midwest District	Southern District	Southwest District	Northwest District
Field hockey....	21.8	2.7	4.0	....	3.5	....
Basketball.....	39.7	8.3	2.0	41.6	3.5	3.1
Volleyball.....	10.2	5.5	6.1	14.5	14.3	3.1
Softball.....	19.2	5.5	4.0	8.3	3.5	6.2
Tennis.....	12.8	4.1	6.1	24.5	42.8	40.6
Golf.....	2.5	...	...	3.1	7.1	12.5
Swimming.....	2.5	2.7	2.0	5.2	7.1	6.2

various sizes scattered over the United States and to state directors of physical education in the forty-eight states. Returns were received from 78 per cent of the superintendents and from 94 per cent of the state directors.

The questionnaire sought to discover the extent to which senior high schools in the school systems sampled have representative competitive school teams for girls. The results are shown in Table 1. The allocation to districts was based on the districts of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. From Table 1 it is clear that there are notable regional differences in the extent to which schools permit team competition for girls. There are also notable variations among the several sports in which girls participate.

The samples of towns and cities having most team competition for girls seem to be

43; Northwest, 39; Southwest, 12; Midwest, 8; Central, 5; and Eastern, 5.

Based on the number of school systems in which occasional games are played by representative girls' teams, the districts are ranked in the following order: Eastern, Southern, Southwest, Northwest, Central, and Midwest.

The rank order of sports having representative teams for girls (not necessarily in prearranged leagues) follows: (1) basketball, (2) tennis, (3) volleyball, (4) softball, (5) field hockey, (6) swimming, (7) golf, (8) badminton, and (9) skiing.

The respondents were asked to compare their over-all, high-school, physical-education program (including athletics) for boys with their over-all program for girls and to indicate which program "better meets your educational ideal." In answer to this question, 130 superintendents felt that the girls'

program more nearly meets this ideal, 107 superintendents voted for the boys' program, and 67 thought the programs were equal. Seven superintendents said "Neither," and six were undecided. In the Southern district the results were as follows: girls' program, 29; boys' program, 35; and same, 15. It may be significant that, in the only district where more superintendents considered the girls' programs less ideal than the boys' programs, a significantly greater number of intercity school athletic leagues for girls was reported.

More than half the state directors of physical education consider that the girls' programs of physical education "better meet their educational ideal" in contrast to the programs for boys.

The following are a few random comments from the several hundred received:

#### GIRLS' PROGRAM MORE IDEAL

More emphasis upon physical education "for all."

Less competitive and more diversified. Our girls' program is more general and concerns itself more with activities appropriate to adult life.

Girls' program well rounded, balanced between instructional and intramural program. Boys' program weak in intramurals and individual sports.

The Girls Athletic Association reaches more girls in more sports with the single educational objective of participation rather than interschool competition.

It includes most all girls. No pressure to win.

We are able to operate the girls' program strictly for fun.

No commercial aspect. Much less pressure. Not a public spectacle.

Better achievement of "athletics for all" objective.

Less emphasis placed on wins and losses.

Well-organized intramural program integrated with class program meets needs of nearly all girls.

#### BOYS' PROGRAM MORE IDEAL

We have some facilities for boys, none for girls.

More competitive. More adjustment values.

More social values.

Reaches more people and has created more in-

terest—result, greater participation with limited space. Boys get the "breaks," which makes for a better program.

I believe there is a place for some competition among some of our girls. We offer none.

More time and emphasis on boys because of athletics.

Superintendents were asked to respond to the question: "To what extent do you sense some pressure for more interschool athletic competition for girls in your community?" The results were as follows: "A great deal," 6; "Some," 25; "Very little," 123; and "None at all," 185. No state director of physical education reports "A great deal" of pressure for more interschool competition for girls. Ten report no pressures, and thirty-five report pressure varying from "Very little" to "Some."

The following are a few random statements from over three hundred received in response to the question, "If there is any pressure at all, what factors do you feel are responsible for it?"

Fathers of girls. "Community pride" groups. Because our girls' teams have always had a good following.

A feeling that the girls are being slighted.

Newspapers and sports enthusiasts.

Commercial groups who want girls' basketball teams, etc.

Students [girls] request it and, in some cases, the parents.

New residents who had former experience in competition elsewhere.

Strong in rural schools.

Desire for showmanship. Local forces.

Parents of outstanding players.

In response to the question, "Do you believe that state basketball tournaments for girls are educationally defensible?" 17 superintendents answered "Yes"; 321, "No"; and 6 were undecided. Many superintendents added, "Neither are they defensible for boys!"

Only eleven states have state high-school basketball tournaments for girls. One of these carries the tournament only to regional championships, and two limit participation to smaller schools of the state. The following are representative of the comments

made by those who believe basketball tournaments for girls are defensible:

Social and emotional benefits are important factors, and they alone should make the program worth while. Competitive sports are desirable for girls as well as boys, if properly supervised.

We have a right to as much attention as shown to boys.

Builds character. Good citizenship.

I think it would be a "shot in the arm" for girls' sports.

Following are representative samples of the comments received from the 321 superintendents who consider that basketball tournaments for girls are not educationally defensible:

The strain is both physical and emotional and is too severe.

The same amount of time and planning put in on physical education would bring better results.

Not worth the time, emphasis, and money necessary.

Boys' tournaments have many bad features; why inflict them on the girls?

Strain, tension, and so on. Already enough basketball.

Girls do not possess the skill nor the emotional stability to endure the rigors of intensive and prolonged competition.

Even experience with boys' tournaments has proved educationally unsound.

When emphasis is upon winning at all costs, the players' welfare is not of primary importance and is apt to be overlooked.

They are more for entertainment than education.

Too much emotional stress and too time-consuming for a small number of participants.

The following question was asked: "Do you believe that, because the Russian women in the last Olympics outshone our women in track and field and gymnastics, the schools ought to encourage state championships in these activities for high-school girls?" Five superintendents answered "Yes"; 335, "No"; 2, "Undecided"; and 1, "Perhaps." Following are representative comments. Three of those answering the question "Yes" commented:

I favor greater emphasis on gymnastics and body-building activities.

Not because of what Russia has done, but because of value which we feel comes from state tournaments.

Not overemphasized. Only on a voluntary basis. If brought into the school on a competitive basis, there would be more interest.

Some of those who answered "No" said:

We should base our program on scientific fact and not on what the Russians do.

Let the Russians continue to develop their women into Amazons, but let us continue to develop femininity and charm in our women.

I would want our decision to be based on what is good for the girls, rather than a desire to outshine the Russians.

Olympics do not measure the standards of well-developed personalities that should characterize American womanhood.

The well-adjusted and healthy individual is our aim and not the overdeveloped few to glorify a nation or community.

Education is for what it can do for the individual. I do not believe girls will become better women if they compete in athletics at the state championship level.

#### CONCLUDING COMMENT

Because the samples, although carefully selected, were relatively small, the findings reported in this article should be interpreted as indicative of trends and not as conclusive. However, there is an indication that the physical-education program for girls is more effective than is the boys' program in achieving the real educational purposes of sports. There is little pressure to include more intercity competition between girls' teams. Superintendents of schools and state directors of physical education seem to be interested mainly in developing well-adjusted and healthy women rather than in developing winning teams or champion athletes.

In answer to the question, "How much sports competition is optimum for high-school girls?" the data here reported suggest that good intramural programs are helpful but that intercity-league competition does not aid in achieving desirable educational objectives and may even be harmful to these aims.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON STATISTICS, THE THEORY OF TEST CONSTRUCTION, AND FACTOR ANALYSIS

FRANCES SWINEFORD

*Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey*

★

THE BIBLIOGRAPHY which is presented below has been selected from issues of educational and psychological journals from July, 1955, to July, 1956, inclusive. Sharp distinctions do not exist between the fields covered in this list, but, as an assistance to the student with special interests in one or more of the fields, the references have been classified under the following categories: theory and use of statistical methods, problems of test construction, and factor analysis. No articles dealing primarily with the use of tests have been included because these items are distributed functionally in other lists in the cycle, such as those dealing with secondary-school instruction and guidance.

### THEORY AND USE OF STATISTICAL METHODS

619. BURT, CYRIL. "Test Reliability Estimated by Analysis of Variance," *British Journal of Statistical Psychology*, VIII (November, 1955), 103-18.

Points out the relations between certain test-reliability formulas and analysis-of-variance results.

620. DIEDERICH, PAUL B. "Pitfalls in the Measurement of Gains in Achievement," *School Review*, LXIV (February, 1956), 59-63.

A non-technical discussion of the interpretation of gains in test scores noted after a period of instruction.

621. FISKE, DONALD W., and BAER, DONALD M. "The Coefficient of Variation: An Evaluation," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XV (Winter, 1955), 396-403.

A discussion of the significance, usefulness, and limitations of the coefficient of variation.

622. GARSIDE, R. F. "The Regression of Gains upon Initial Scores," *Psychometrika*, XXI (March, 1956), 67-77.

"A method of estimating the regression of gains upon initial scores is suggested and compared with two other methods which have been used in recent investigations." Both linear and non-linear regressions are considered.

623. GOURLAY, NEIL. "F-Test Bias for Experimental Designs in Educational Research," *Psychometrika*, XX (September, 1955), 227-48.

Considers the F-test bias for experimental designs in educational research which are based on the randomized-blocks techniques.

624. GOURLAY, NEIL. "F-Test Bias for Experimental Designs of the Latin Square Type," *Psychometrika*, XX (December, 1955), 273-87.

Considers the F-test bias for experimental designs in educational research of which the Latin square is the prototype.

625. GULLIKSEN, HAROLD. "A Least Squares Solution for Paired Comparisons with Incomplete Data," *Psychometrika*, XXI (June, 1956), 125-34.

Presents "a solution for paired comparisons with incomplete data for the case in which the correlations are equal and the ratios of the discriminial dispersions are known."

626. HORST, PAUL. "Optimal Test Length for Maximum Differential Prediction," *Psychometrika*, XXI (March, 1956), 51-66.

Presents a method for determining the optimal distribution of testing time for a battery of predictors for differential prediction involving a number of criterion variables. A complete numerical example is followed by the derivation of the method.

627. JENKINS, W. L. "An Improved Method for Tetrachoric  $r$ ," *Psychometrika*, XX (September, 1955), 253-58.

Presents three tables by means of which tetrachoric correlations can be estimated with error under .005 about 90 per cent of the time, even when the splits are not close to the medians.

628. JENKINS, WILLIAM LEROY. "Triserial  $r$ —A Neglected Statistic," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XL (February, 1956), 63-64.

Gives the general formula for triserial  $r$  and the simplification that results when the high and the low groups are equal. Compares the standard error of triserial  $r$  with that of biserial  $r$ .

629. KARON, BERTRAM P. "The Stability of Equated Test Scores," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXIV (March, 1956), 181-95.

An empirical study of the sampling errors related to four methods of equating scales of tests administered to non-overlapping groups of examinees.

630. KIMMEL, HERBERT D. "The Relationship between Chi Square and Size of Sample in Two-celled Tables," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XL (February, 1956), 61-62.

Offers a simple graph relating the difference between observed and expected frequencies to the size of the sample for significance at the 5 per cent and at the 1 per cent levels.

631. KRAMER, CLYDE YOUNG. "On the Analysis of Variance of a Two-Way Classification with Unequal Sub-class Numbers," *Biometrics*, XI (December, 1955), 441-52.

Proposes a new method for data with unequal subclasses when interaction can be assumed to be absent or negligible.

632. LORD, FREDERIC M. "Equating Test Scores—A Maximum Likelihood Solution," *Psychometrika*, XX (September, 1955), 193-200.

Develops and illustrates a maximum-likelihood method of equating two tests, making use of a third "anchor" test.

633. LORD, FREDERIC M. "Estimating Test Reliability," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XV (Winter, 1955), 325-36.

Formulas for parallel-form reliability coefficients are derived from two definitions of parallelism.

634. LORD, FREDERIC M. "Sampling Error Due to Choice of Split in Split-Half Reliability Coefficients," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXIV (March, 1956), 245-49.

Derives the formula for the sampling variance of the "random-halves" reliability coefficient when all possible splits are sampled for a given group of examinees. Suggests a procedure that will keep the sampling errors to a minimum.

635. MCHUGH, RICHARD B., and ELLIS, DOUGLAS S. "The 'Post-mortem' Testing of Experimental Comparisons," *Psychological Bulletin*, LII (September, 1955), 425-28.

A discussion of appropriate methods for further probing of data for which a significant  $F$  has been found through analysis of variance.

636. MEDLEY, DONALD M., MITZEL, HAROLD E., and DOI, ARTHUR N. "Analysis-of-Variance Models and Their Use in a Three-Way Design without Replication," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXIV (March, 1956), 221-29.

A report which attempts to "state and illustrate as simply as possible the implications of the use of each of three elementary analysis-of-variance models, using data gathered in a series of observations of classroom teachers."

637. MICHAEL, WILLIAM B., and CAFFEY, JOHN G. "Tables To Facilitate Computation of Partial Correlation Coefficients," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Summer, 1956), 232-36.

Tables are described which may be of particular value when large numbers of partial-correlation coefficients are required.

638. SCHAEFFER, MAURICE S., and LEVITT, EUGENE E. "Concerning Kendall's Tau, a Non-parametric Correlation Coefficient," *Psychological Bulletin*, LIII (July, 1956), 338-46.

A description and discussion of Kendall's Tau, including the definition, tests of significance, correction for continuity, confidence limits, significance of differences, and a complete numerical example.

639. SIEGEL, SIDNEY. "A Method for Obtaining an Ordered Metric Scale," *Psychometrika*, XXI (June, 1956), 207-16.

"A method is presented for collecting data which will yield a scale on which the entities are ranked in preference (ordinality), the distances between the entities on the scale are ranked (ordered metric), and all combinations of the distances are ranked (higher-ordered metric)."

640. TORGERSON, WARREN S. "A Nonparametric Test of Correlation Using Rank Orders within Subgroups," *Psychometrika*, XXI (June, 1956), 145-52.

"Kendall's rank order test for association between two variables is generalized to the case where the total sample is made up of several subgroups and the data on one or both variables consist of the rank order within each subgroup."

641. TUCKER, LEDYARD R.; DuBOIS, PHILIP H.; and SMITH, THOMAS L., JR. "Scoring Item Punched Cards by Selector Networks," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Summer, 1956), 237-43.

A procedure is described whereby scores based on any number of scoring keys can be secured from IBM cards in which item scores have been punched. An IBM tabulator and a summary punch are used for this purpose.

642. WILSON, KELLOGG V. "A Distribution-free Test of Analysis of Variance Hypotheses," *Psychological Bulletin*, LIII (January, 1956), 96-101.

Presents a non-parametric test of the hypotheses concerning main effects and interaction ordinarily tested by a two-way analysis of variance. A numerical example is given, followed by discussion of the extension of the procedure to more complex designs.

#### PROBLEMS OF TEST CONSTRUCTION

643. COOMBS, CLYDE H., MILHOLLAND, J. E., and WOMER, F. B. "The Assessment of Partial Knowledge," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Spring, 1956), 13-37.

A report of "an intensive study of an experimental response method for multiple-choice items." In particular, the examinee is required to indicate the answers which he knows to be wrong. A scoring method is used which apparently provides more reliable, more discriminating scores than does the conventional procedure.

644. FINDLEY, WARREN G. "A Rationale for Evaluation of Item Discrimination Statistics," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Summer, 1956), 175-80.

Presents reasons for favoring the use of a simplified technique of item analysis.

645. FRICKE, BENNO G. "A Configural-Content-Intensity Item for Personality Measurement," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Spring, 1956), 54-62.

Suggests a new type of item for use in connection with personality, interest, and attitude measurement. The item involves scoring simultaneously three responses, namely, two content responses and one intensity response.

646. HORST, PAUL, and MACEWAN, CHARLOTTE. "Optimal Test Length for Maximum Absolute Prediction," *Psychometrika*, XXI (June, 1956), 111-24.

A method is described for determining the optimal test length for maximum absolute prediction from a battery of tests when the total testing time for the battery is fixed.

647. JOHNSON, A. PEMBERTON. "The Development of Shorter and More Useful Selection Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLVI (November, 1955), 402-7.

Describes procedures used for shortening two tests by substantial amounts with virtually no loss of validity.

648. LORD, FREDERIC M. "Some Perspectives on 'The Attenuation Paradox in Test Theory,'" *Psychological Bulletin*, LII (November, 1955), 505-10.

Calls attention to "four known results that provide further clarification of the so-called paradox and of its effect on the selection of items in test construction." (See Item No. 692 in the November, 1955, list of Selected References.)

649. LORD, FREDERIC M. "A Survey of Observed Test-Score Distributions with Respect to Skewness and Kurtosis," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XV (Winter, 1955), 383-89.

A summary of characteristics of test-score distributions for 48 tests administered to 500-32,000 examinees in a number of testing programs of the Educational Testing Service in 1952-53.

650. MICHAEL, WILLIAM B., and PERRY, NORMAN C. "A Theory of Item-Analysis Based on the Scoring of Items at Three Levels of Appropriateness of Response," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XV (Winter, 1955), 404-15.

Development of formulas relating item parameters to the mean, variance, reliability, and validity of scores when the method of scoring is such that the response to each item is evaluated as correct, half-correct, or incorrect.

651. MILHOLLAND, JOHN E. "The Reliability of Test Discriminations," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XV (Winter, 1955), 362-70.

Investigates some special methods of scoring multiple-choice items with respect to their effect on the test reliability.

652. PATTON, ROLLIN M., and MEYER, PRISCILLA R. "A Forced Choice Rating Form for College Teachers," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLVI (December, 1955), 499-503.

Describes procedures used in the construction of a rating scale which appears to be both reliable and resistant to faking.

653. SHELLEY, HARRY P. "Response Set and the California Attitude Scales," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Spring, 1956), 63-67.

Employs several studies using a number of attitude scales to demonstrate the probable existence of a response set, acquiescence. Discusses briefly the implications of the findings.

654. THOMAS, MACKLIN. "Construction Shift Exercises in Objective Form," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Summer, 1956), 181-86.

Demonstrates construction-shift exercises in multiple-choice form, for which substantial item-test correlations have been obtained for groups of Freshmen in the Chicago City Junior College.

655. WEBSTER, HAROLD. "Maximizing Test Validity by Item Selection," *Psychometrika*, XXI (June, 1956), 153-64.

The exact condition for discarding  $k$  items from a test in order to obtain a residual test with higher validity is described. Time-saving approximations are suggested.

#### FACTOR ANALYSIS

656. DAVIS, PAUL C. "A Factor Analysis of the Wechsler-Bellevue Scale," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Spring, 1956), 127-46.

The results of an analysis of fourteen Wechsler-Bellevue subtests and ten reference variables whose factor content is known.

657. FLEISHMAN, EDWIN A., and HEMPEL, WALTER E., JR. "Factorial Analysis of Complex Psychomotor Performance and Related Skills," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XL (April, 1956), 96-104.

A report of a factor analysis based on the inter-correlations of sixteen apparatus tests and seven printed tests designed as possible substitutes for the apparatus tests, all administered to more than one thousand Navy pilot candidates.

658. HARRIS, C. W. "Relationships between Two Systems of Factor Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XXI (June, 1956), 185-90.

Develops the transformation which relates the factors of the correlation matrix with units in the diagonal cells to the factors of the correlation matrix with communalities in the diagonal cells.

659. HIGH, WALLACE S., GOLDBERG, LISBETH L., and COMREY, ANDREW L. "Factored Dimensions of Organizational Behavior: II. Aircraft Workers," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XV (Winter, 1955), 371-82.

Report of the development of a sixty-three-item questionnaire covering sixteen dimensions, which was administered to a sample of workers at the Lockheed Aircraft Corporation. The correlations among the sixteen dimension scores were analyzed by the centroid method and the results rotated to oblique simple structure.

660. HIGH, WALLACE S., GOLDBERG, LISBETH L., and COMREY, ANDREW L. "Factored Dimensions of Organizational Behavior: III. Aircraft Supervisors," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Spring, 1956), 38-53.

A report of a factor analysis of the responses to a 106-item questionnaire administered to one hundred selected supervisors at an aircraft plant. The questionnaire was administered to a second group of supervisors and scored on sets of items identified with the factors determined by the first analysis.

661. HORST, PAUL. "Simplified Computations for the Multiple Group Method of Factor Analysis," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XVI (Spring, 1956), 101-9.

Points out simplifications in the computational procedures associated with the multiple-group method of factor analysis previously suggested by Holzinger, Thurstone, and Fruchter. The simplified method is presented as a series of steps, illustrated with numerical data.

662. HORST, PAUL, and SCHAE, K. W. "The Multiple Group Method of Factor Analysis and Rotation to a Simple Structure Hypothesis," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXIV (March, 1956), 231-37.

A description and numerical illustration of a combination of the multiple-group method and Tucker's rotation to simple structure in case a simple-structure hypothesis is available.

663. KAISER, HENRY F. "Note on Carroll's Analytic Simple Structure," *Psychometrika*, XXI (March, 1956), 89-92.

Presents a method for computing the transformation matrix for Carroll's analytic simple structure. (See Item No. 789 in the November, 1953, list of Selected References.)

664. LORD, FREDERIC M. "A Study of Speed Factors in Tests and Academic Grades," *Psychometrika*, XXI (March, 1956), 31-50.

A factor analysis of a number of speeded and un-speeded tests of vocabulary, spatial relations, and arithmetic reasoning, together with six reference tests and academic marks in six areas.

665. LORR, MAURICE; JENKINS, RICHARD L.; and MEDLAND, FRANCIS F. "Direct versus Obverse Factor Analysis: A Comparison of Results," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XV (Winter, 1955), 441-49.

An empirical study, based on sixteen measurements of each of sixteen geometrical objects, to determine "whether (1) an obverse factor analysis can isolate or distinguish between subgroups or clusters of objects; (2) the factors isolated by Q-tech-

nique are distinguishable from those isolated by R-technique."

666. NUNNALLY, JUM C., "Some Uses for 'Transpose' Factor Design in Assessment Research," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XV (Autumn, 1955), 240-45.

Describes a transpose factor procedure for determining test scoring keys and for comparing patterns of response in two or more groups.

667. STECKLEIN, JOHN E. "Empirical Comparison of Six Cessation Tests for Use in Principal Components Factor Analysis," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXIV (March, 1956), 165-80.

Six different procedures for determining when to stop factoring are compared. The principal compo-

nents method of factor analysis is used. Five of the procedures are applied to four sets of data, the sixth to one set.

668. TRITES, DAVID K., and SELLS, SAUL B. "A Note on Alternative Methods for Estimating Factor Scores," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXIX (December, 1955), 455-56.

Two methods of estimating individual factor scores are compared.

669. TUCKER, LEDYARD R. "The Objective Definition of Simple Structure in Linear Factor Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XX (September, 1955), 209-25.

Discusses the requirements for an objective definition of simple structure and evaluates a number of proposed objective criteria.

## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

THEODORE BRAMELD, *Toward a Reconstructed Philosophy of Education*. New York 19: Dryden Press, Inc., 1956. Pp. xiv+418. \$4.50.

With the publication of *Toward a Reconstructed Philosophy of Education*, Professor Brameld completes the revision of his earlier *Patterns of Educational Philosophy* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1950). In *Philosophies of Education in Cultural Perspective* (New York 19: Dryden Press, 1955), he revised his critiques of "progressivism," "essentialism," and "perennialism." In the present volume he revises his presentation of his own "reconstructionism." He does not change his basic doctrine; he only presents it more cogently. The result may be his definitive statement.

In justice to Professor Brameld, persons unfamiliar with his views should study them in his own book rather than in this review. His Prologue argues the need for reconstructionism from the inadequacies of other "isms." In Part I he states his fundamental philosophical beliefs: Philosophy should be utopian, offering vision. Reality is primarily historical and cultural. Knowledge is for the sake of goal-seeking and should be built into group-mind by truth-seeking through social consensus. Value is want-satisfaction and should be integrated into a pattern of social-self-realization. In Part II Brameld states his educational beliefs: The school should lead progress, promoting cultural renaissance according to designs accepted by the majority. Learning should be truth-seeking through social consensus, identical with social-self-realization, defensibly partisan, leading to cultural reconstruction. The curriculum should be goal-centered general education, focused on the purposes of our culture. Control of education is actually by a minority, in behalf of the dominant ideology, but it should be by the majority, in behalf of utopian reorganization. Education for democratic power should be sought through an alliance of teachers with the forces of freedom, particularly with organized labor. Brameld's Epilogue raises and answers criticisms of reconstructionism.

What shall we say about Professor Brameld's book?

Let us begin by examining what he is trying to do. He says that his purpose is "to point the way toward a fresh and exciting period of opportunity for democratic education" (p. vi). Believing that American education has lost the forward momentum which it once took from progressivism, and that it has even started to drift backwards in fearfulness and insecurity, he seems to feel that it needs to be pushed forward again as strongly as he can push it.

Because of this deep concern with changing the direction in which he thinks our culture is moving, he is tremendously interested in power and force, since power and force are what determine the directions in which things move. He looks so hard at power that he sometimes almost reduces education to a weapon for prying "them" out of, and hoisting "us" into, the seats of power. But power to Brameld is always for the sake of goals; and he can always argue that the educational means are justified by the cultural goals and that these goals are certainly good since the principles of evidence, communication, agreement, and action vouch for their value (pp. 111-12). And so in the end he seems less like a Machiavelli, writing a grammar of power for his friends, than like a latter-day Savonarola, prepared to use education along with whatever else it takes to assure us all of cultural salvation. He has gone to considerable trouble to blueprint a utopia. If he gets enough permissions, he is prepared to send forty million school children (and the AF of L-CIO) to set it up on everybody's green and pleasant front lawn.

Here, then, is an operationalist concerned with power, who borrows the forms of dialectic in a sincere effort to force our education and culture to move in the way he is sure they should go. His dialectical method lacks the elaborate Platonic apparatus for handling any number of terms on any number of levels and proceeds instead with thesis, antithesis, and synthesis. And this brings us back to our question about what he is trying to do. Dialectics in-

evitably move forward toward some comprehensive principle at the end of the trail, some synthesis of syntheses—like the Idea of the Good, the City of God, or the Absolute. Brameld's utopia—his cultural renaissance, with its social-self-realization integrating all cultural wants—has the superficial earmarks of such a synthesis of syntheses. And yet on closer inspection it may not be even that; it may not be really a synthesis at all. Is it perhaps, instead, simply the antithesis of what Professor Brameld doesn't like in what we have now got? The more this reviewer thinks about the matter, the more he sees it as primarily such an antithesis.

Professor Brameld, more than most philosophers, is tremendously earnest about his cultural relativism. And he starts with the belief that contemporary American education is partly stuck in the present, under control of a bunch of conservative essentialists and ineffectual progressives, and partly drifting backward, under control of a bunch of reactionary perennialists. Maybe he continues in this way: Doubtless there is *some* good in their views of education and culture; but it would be premature to admit it until we get control clearly into the hands of the folks with opposite values—folks who will move education forward. And so it would be premature to attempt a synthesis; the need of the moment is for a good strong antithesis. And so Professor Brameld sets out to supply one by means of this book. In intellectual terms, he does not claim or aspire to give us a well-balanced view, *sub specie aeternitatis*; instead he aims at "defensible partiality" (pp. 200-208). In cultural terms, he does not claim or aspire to set up something which will rule in the interests of *all*; instead, he aims to get the rule into the hands of those forward-moving groups who are not now ruling—a constellation which he confidently believes will be a majority as soon as people can be brought to realize what they actually want. And so on.

Hence we should not, perhaps, get too excited when Professor Brameld casts himself as an *enfant terrible* and tries to make a noise like a clear and present danger. Along with his philosophy of education, he is writing a rhetoric of education, and overstating a good many things to goad us to start looking and moving in the right direction. At least, that is this reviewer's present feeling.

Having said this, the reviewer must go on to declare that, if he has got to take Professor Brameld's vision as a fairly literal picture of

what we really ought to do with the schools, then he must condemn it for *indefensible* partiality. When this reviewer and Professor Brameld look in the same direction, they see different things; and of course the reviewer is confident that it is Professor Brameld who needs new glasses.

When this reviewer sees many things, Professor Brameld sees only two—and the fault is with his dialectical spectacles. He may be right in seeing the struggle for power as, in some sense, *between two* constellations of forces (the friends and the enemies of our traditional power structure [pp. 62-64]). But when he looks at the struggle over human freedom, he again sees a struggle *between two groups* (its enemies and its friends [pp. 65-67]), whereas this reviewer sees many battles for various freedoms *among many groups*. Has Professor Brameld fallen victim to the formalities of his own dialectic?

When this reviewer sees two things, Professor Brameld sees only one. For it turns out that, for Brameld, the struggle over our traditional power structure and the struggle over human freedom are the same struggle: the friends of the structure are the enemies of human freedom, while the enemies of the structure are the friends of human freedom. While this reviewer is seeing a tragic Donnybrook Fair, with men who have various degrees of good in them confusedly grouping and regrouping to fight about various things, Professor Brameld is seeing a melodramatic Armageddon, with the hosts of darkness ranged against the hosts of light.

For teachers, the consequences of these differences are crucial. Professor Brameld asks:

Do we or do we not wish to join with those who, in vast numbers and with solidarity, now struggle to transform the principle of majority rule into the kind of world-wide consensus epitomized by social-self-realization? [P. 313.]

If we are in fact standing at Armageddon, teachers should answer "We join!" and become Brameldian Reconstructionists. But if we are in fact standing in Donnybrook Fair, teachers should answer "Who's that?" and become something else.

It is always tempting to argue with Professor Brameld about the way he sees education in relation to culture. Take the organic principle. Though he is anti-totalitarian, Professor Brameld seems almost to forget to synthesize it with any individualistic principle and, instead, seems to use it almost alone to arrange class-

room discipline or the government of the world. Or take utopia. Professor Brameld seems to see it, not as regulative ideas whose home is in the logos, but as a literally attainable idea, forgetting that heaven as it should be, operated with men as they are, may feel like hell.

But we must resist these temptations in order to complain that he never really examines education in relation to anything except the culture. Education is never really examined in relation to the world that is *known*, insofar as it is natural as well as cultural. Wouldn't it help to look at possible natural limits to educations and utopias for men? Education is never really examined in relation to the *knowledge* that men have organized into sciences and arts. Wouldn't a good look at the natural sciences and the arts save us from teaching them merely as bastard social sciences? Education is never really examined in relation to the *knowers* who have got to do the learning. Wouldn't an independent look at these poor little ones reveal important aspects of motivation and learning other than "social-self-realization"? Education is never really examined in relation to the *knowledge-inducers*—the teachers and other resources which must cause learning. Might not a careful look at them suggest that they can and should do some things but maybe cannot or should not build a new social order?

Of course a philosopher must philosophize from *some* standpoint, and there is no law against choosing to look at everything in terms of the culture. On the contrary, for the last thirty years there has been such a fashion for looking at education in these terms that many education departments do not realize that philosophy has many other standpoints.<sup>1</sup> But the philosopher who chooses a standpoint must then manage to use it so that he does not reduce the important topics of education to pawns in a game that no longer really looks like education at all.

The reviewer deeply admires the earnestness with which Professor Brameld sets out to use philosophy to yield a vision of new and audacious possibilities in education. But we must take care lest philosophy end in tunnel vision. Probably the most serious "partiality" in Professor Brameld's work has to do not with what it con-

tains but with what it unnecessarily leaves out. Whether such partiality is "defensible" the reader must judge.

GEORGE E. BARTON, JR.

Tulane University

★

GUY T. BUSWELL with the co-operation of BERT Y. KERSH, *Patterns of Thinking in Solving Problems*. University of California Publications in Education, Vol. XII, No. 2. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1956. Pp. viii+63-148. \$2.00.

This contribution to the growing literature on problem-solving describes a study of considerable potential importance to teachers seeking more effective teaching methods; for it is through research on how people learn and behave that we are most likely to discover how to increase the effectiveness of our teaching procedures. This study is centered on the methods of solving mathematical "word problems." While the study's results are the focus of attention and interest, the description of a potentially highly useful research procedure for studying problem-solving is of considerable importance. It is heartening to see Buswell continuing work in this area, which is possibly an outgrowth of his earlier studies in arithmetic.

The study consists of three parts. The first, chapter ii, explores four general aspects of problem approach. These are (1) the approach to problems containing extra facts or failing to contain needed facts, (2) the ability to estimate the answer to a problem before proceeding to find the exact answer, (3) the "relationship between the sequence or pattern of operations and the accuracy of the solution" (p. 78), (4) the possibility of a "difference in the methods used in solving problems when the facts are expressed in numbers [as compared with] letter symbols" (p. 89).

The second part, chapter iii, deals with the discovery of a generalization. This study showed that a large number of college students were unable to infer the correct principle. More important, the process records showed a "confusion and frustration in thinking . . . [which] evidenced lack of familiarity with the nature of formulating generalizations" (p. 136). Further, a large proportion of students who deduced the correct generalization were unable to apply it to a problem of different structure.

<sup>1</sup> For a first-rate historical account of this tendency, which does not mention Professor Brameld but which might almost serve as a review of his book, see Frederic Lilje, "The Politicizing of Educational Theory," *Ethics*, LXVI (April, 1956), 188-97.

The third part, chapters iv and v, is an attempt to:

... analyze the process of thinking during the solution of a particular problem. The primary purpose here is to describe as objectively as possible the various ways in which different individuals solve the same problem, and then to identify different patterns, if such exist, which characterize the thinking of sizable groups of individuals [p. 102].

This study revealed some agreement in patterns of thinking, but "the most striking characteristic was variety, rather than similarity, in sequence of thinking" (p. 136).

As one would expect, this publication of an experienced researcher is well done. It is a study which should spur efforts in this area. The data are reported in considerable completeness so that others may study the findings. One can, however, raise two questions about technique. The first concerns the appropriateness of the method used for study of the extent to which "students first structure their thinking in terms of relevant, irrelevant, or needed facts" (p. 67). In contrast to the statement of the question, data were gathered on the basis: Can students do this *when asked to do so* and *without solving the problem*? There is some question whether the "can do when asked" nature of the task, and being asked to judge "without solving the problem," might yield data different from a normal problem approach. Thus, 48 per cent of a high-school group who were given the missing data and asked to solve the problem did so correctly. Yet the per cent correctly classifying parts of the problem as relevant, irrelevant, or without all the facts needed ranged from only 15 to 37 per cent in another high school. Since determining the appropriate data would be a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition to correct solution, one would expect the latter per cents to be larger than the former. Since we know nothing of the comparability of the groups, however, these data are not conclusive.

An important contribution of this monograph is the method used to gather data on problem-solving. Lazerte<sup>1</sup> structured problems into a series of steps, each step containing two logical alternatives. Buswell built his alternatives from the recorded responses of students solving the problem aloud. Since the tests were individually administered, the subject was provided with a range of alternatives at each step

<sup>1</sup>M. E. Lazerte, *The Development of Problem Solving Ability in Arithmetic*, pp. 5-21. Toronto: Clarke, Irwin & Co., 1933.

in accordance with the analysis of verbal problem-solving.

The second question on technique concerns the validity of this method compared with non-test behavior. Construction from the recorded processes of subjects might appear to insure the test's validity. Yet the very process of measuring behavior may change it. Is it conceivable that forcing the student into a step-by-step sequence causes him to lose his train of thought or become confused? Do the alternatives offered at each step suggest solutions not otherwise considered? Use of this method in further research might well be preceded by validity checks.

The authors indicate that the absence of a generalized mode of problem-solving suggests a failure on the part of the school to achieve any success in teaching thinking. On the other hand, one could interpret this as suggesting that our commonly held assumption that every student should be a "logical thinker" is unrealistic and fallacious. The authors raise the question whether the variety is natural and to be accepted. Further, at one point they question how much similarity of thinking is desirable. Certainly those dealing with projective techniques would be little surprised by the finding of variety. The person administering the Rorschach test, for instance, listens to verbal problem-solving every time he gives a test, and each protocol is different—an almost infinite variety. But projectivists believe each subject has a consistent problem-solving approach. Without going into the merits of projective techniques or the role of personality factors in problem-solving process (a relevant area for this study, nevertheless), there is some evidence that an individual does approach problems of different kinds consistently, and this has been predicted from a projective technique.<sup>2</sup> If we accept this "variety" as natural, does this suggest that we could maximize our teaching effectiveness by fitting the procedure to the learner's "logical processes" rather than forcing him into the "school-approved" method of thinking?

This is just a beginning. How "natural" is this variety? How impervious are problem approaches to change? What are the accompanying effects of trying to change a student's approach as opposed to teaching him a method

<sup>2</sup>Ralph H. Goldner, "Individual Differences in Problem-solving Behavior." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1952.

appropriate to the problem approach he uses? To what extent are the problem-solving processes used related to the training methods undergone? How specific are they to problem types? Are there common patterns that cut across problem types? These and a host of other questions need to be answered. Buswell and

Kersh are to be congratulated on beginning these tasks. It is to be hoped that many more studies will follow.

DAVID R. KRATZHOHL

Bureau of Research and Service  
Michigan State University

\*

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- ADAMS, GEORGIA SACHS, and TORGERSON, THEODORE L., with ERNEST L. WOOD, general editor. *Measurement and Evaluation for the Secondary-School Teacher: With Implications for Corrective Procedures*. New York 19: Dryden Press, 1956. Pp. xiv+658. \$5.75.
- ANDERSON, C. L. *School Health Practice*. St. Louis 3: C. V. Mosby Co., 1956. Pp. 560. \$4.75.
- BOWMAN, PAUL H., DEHAAN, ROBERT F., KOUGH, JOHN K., and LIDDLE, GORDON P. *Mobilizing Community Resources for Youth: Identification and Treatment of Maladjusted, Delinquent, and Gifted Children*. The Youth Development Series, No. 3. Edited by ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 85. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1956. Pp. viii+138. \$2.50.
- BUGELSKI, B. R. *The Psychology of Learning*. New York 17: Henry Holt & Co., 1956. Pp. xiv+524. \$5.75.
- DEVER, KATHRYN IMOGENE. *Positions in the Field of Reading*. Teachers College Studies in Education. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956. Pp. x+166. \$4.25.
- DURKHEIM, EMILE. *Education and Sociology*. Translated, with an Introduction, by SHERWOOD D. FOX. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1956. Pp. 164. \$3.50.
- FRANK, MARY and LAWRENCE K. *Your Adolescent at Home and in School*. New York 17: Viking Press, 1956. Pp. viii+336. \$3.95.
- GERBERICH, J. RAYMOND. *Specimen Objective Test Items: A Guide to Achievement Test Construction*. New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co., 1956. Pp. x+436. \$4.75.
- HALVERSON, PAUL M. *How Fares Freedom in the American High School*. . . The 1956 J.

Richard Street Lecture. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1956. Pp. 56. \$2.50.

- HARRIS, ALBERT J. *How To Increase Reading Ability: A Guide to Developmental and Remedial Methods*. New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co., 1956 (third edition). Pp. xx+634. \$5.25.
- HERRICK, VIRGIL E., GOODLAD, JOHN I., ESTVAN, FRANK J., and EBERMAN, PAUL W. *The Elementary School*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. Pp. xiv+474. \$5.95.
- HUGGETT, ALBERT J., and STINNETT, T. M. *Professional Problems of Teachers*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1956. Pp. x+468. \$5.25.
- HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. *Freedom, Education and the Fund: Essays and Addresses, 1946-1956*. New York 3: Meridian Books, Inc., 1956. Pp. 246. \$1.25.
- KENWORTHY, LEONARD S. *Introducing Children to the World in Elementary and Junior High Schools*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1956. Pp. x+368. \$3.75.
- LE BEL, C. J. *How To Make Good Tape Recordings*. New York 22: Audio Devices, Inc. (444 Madison Avenue), 1956. Pp. 160. \$2.50 cloth. \$1.50 paper.
- MILLER, O. C. *The Democratic Way to Better Schools: A Study of What Is Wrong with Public Schools and What To Do about It*. New York 16: Exposition Press, 1956. Pp. 210. \$3.50.
- MOCK, RUTH. *Principles of Art Teaching: A Handbook for Teachers in Primary and Secondary Schools*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1956. Pp. 96. \$6.00.
- MURSELL, JAMES L. *Music Education: Principles and Programs*. Morristown, New Jersey: Silver Burdett Co., 1956. Pp. x+386.
- SCHORLING, RALEIGH, and BATCHELDER, HOWARD T. *Student Teaching in Secondary*

*Schools*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1956 (third edition). Pp. xvi+400. \$5.00.

STOKES, MAURICE S. *An Interpretation of Audio-visual Learning Aids: An Educational Monograph*. Boston 15: Meador Publishing Co., 1956. Pp. 94. \$2.00.

TURNER, C. E. *Personal and Community Health*. St. Louis 3: C. V. Mosby Co., 1956 (tenth edition). Pp. 660. \$4.75.

#### BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

AMES, MAURICE U., BAKER, ARTHUR O., and LEAHY, JOSEPH F. *Science in Today's World*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. Pp. 280. \$3.32.

B'nai B'rith Occupational Brief Series: *Careers in Chemistry*, pp. 12; *Career as Dental Assistant*, pp. 8; *Careers in House-to-House Selling*, pp. 8; *Careers in Office Management*, pp. 12; *Careers in Real Estate*; *Career as Speech and Hearing Therapist*, pp. 10. Washington 5: B'nai B'rith Vocational Service, 1956 (revised). \$0.20 each.

BUNDY, CLARENCE E., and DIGGINS, RONALD V. *Swine Production*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. Pp. xii+338. \$4.50.

FEIKER, JOHN L. *Drawing & Planning for Industrial Arts*, pp. 376; *Instruction Plan and Answer Book To Be Used with "Drawing and Planning for Industrial Arts"*, pp. 8. Peoria 3, Illinois: Chas. A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1956.

HAMILTON, JAMES E., and BRYANT, W. R. *Profitable Farm Management*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. Pp. xiv+394. \$4.80.

KING, RENO C., JR. *Practical Marine Engineering*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956 (second edition). Pp. xiv+542. \$5.50.

MANUEL, HERSCHEL T. *Taking a Test: How To Do Your Best*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1956. Pp. 78.

MILLER, HELEN LOUISE. *Prize Plays for Teen-Agers: A Collection of One-Act, Royalty-free Plays for All Occasions*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 1956. Pp. 504. \$5.00.

OLSEN, GERNER A. *Strength of Materials*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956 (second edition). Pp. xii+444. \$5.25.

*Science Today and Tomorrow: Learning with Science* by GERALD S. CRAIG and CHARLES

K. AREY and MARY E. SHECKLES. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1956. Pp. 340. \$2.96.

STICKER, HENRY. *How To Calculate Quickly (The Art of Calculation)*. New York 10: Dover Publications, Inc., 1955. Pp. 256. \$1.00.

STRANG, RUTH, and HEAVEY, REGINA. *Teen-Age Tales*, Book 3. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1956. Pp. viii+248. \$2.20.

#### PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

BRYCE, MAYO, and GREEN, HARRY B. "Teacher's Craft Manual." San Francisco 15: Fearon Publishers (2450 Fillmore Street), 1956. Pp. 80 (processed).

*Instructional Materials*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XXVI, No. 2. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1956. Pp. 111-98. \$1.50.

*International Yearbook of Education*, Vol. XVII, 1955. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [and] International Bureau of Education Publication No. 169. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [and] Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1955. Pp. 452. \$3.50.

KVARACEUS, WILLIAM C. *Forecasting Juvenile Delinquency*. Boston University Journal of Education, Vol. CXXXVIII, No. 4. Boston 15: Boston University School of Education, 1956. Pp. 44. \$1.00.

LANDIS, PAUL H. *Coming of Age: Problems of Teen-Agers*. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 234. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 1956. Pp. 28. \$0.25.

*Let Them Teach*. 1956 Yearbook, New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association. Plainfield, New Jersey: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association (% Lester D. Beers, 1035 Kenyon Avenue), 1956. Pp. 62. \$1.00.

MONTAGU, ASHLEY. *Modern Man*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1956. Pp. 48. \$0.60.

NVGA *Bibliography of Current Occupational Literature*. Compiled by the NATIONAL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION'S GUIDANCE INFORMATION REVIEW SERVICE COMMITTEE, DORA W. PETERSON, chairman. Washington 5: National Vocational Guidance Association, 1956. Pp. iv+40. \$1.00.

*Off to a Good Start: Teacher Orientation*. Washington 6: American Association of School Administrators, 1956. Pp. 24. \$0.50.

*Paperbound Books in Print: Spring 1956.* An index to 5000 inexpensive reprints and originals with selective subject guide. New York 36: R. R. Bowker Co., 1956. Pp. 134. \$1.00.

PIERS, MARIA. *How To Work with Parents.* A Handbook for Teachers, Counselors, and Administrators in Elementary and Highschools. Practical Ideas in Education. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1955. Pp. 44. \$1.00.

*The Population Involved in International Education.* Report on the Central Index of Educational Exchanges. New York 21: Institute of International Education, [1956]. Pp. 22.

*Recommended Children's Books of 1955: As Professionally Evaluated by Librarians for Librarians in the Junior Libraries Section of the "Library Journal."* Compiled by E. LOUISE DAVIS. New York 36: Junior Libraries (62 West 45th Street), [n.d.]. Pp. 104. \$1.00.

RIESMAN, DAVID. *The Oral Tradition, the Written Word, and the Screen Image.* Antioch College Founders Day Lecture, No. 1. Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1956. Pp. 40. \$0.50.

SCHMIDT, LOUIS G. *Two-Year Evaluation of the Internship in Guidance Program at Indiana University.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXXII, No. 2. Bloomington, Indiana, Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1956. Pp. 68. \$1.00.

*Selection and Guidance of Gifted Students for National Survival.* A Report of the Twentieth Educational Conference, New York City, October 27-28, 1955, held under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education. Edited by ARTHUR E. TRAXLER. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1956. Pp. viii+166. \$1.75.

SORENSEN, MAX. *The Quest for Equality.* International Conciliation, No. 507. New York 27: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Columbia University Press, 1956. Pp. 289-350. \$0.25.

STAUB, FRED, and SAVAGE, WILLIAM W. "Teachers' Salaries and Merit Rating." Administrator's Notebook, Vol. IV, No. 9. Chicago 37: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1956. Pp. 4. \$0.25.

## Effective Teaching in Secondary Schools

by William M. Alexander and Paul M. Halverson

Already  
widely  
adopted

The authors show how modern knowledge of group dynamics, personality, and other psychological and educational principles can be most effectively used in the whole range of specific teacher activities both in and outside of the secondary school classroom. \$5.75

## American High School Administration

POLICY AND PRACTICE

by Will French, J. Dan Hull and B. L. Dodds

Ready  
in  
January

A new, completely revised edition of the text long considered "among the very few outstanding books in its field."

## Teaching Science in the Secondary School

by R. Will Burnett

Ready  
in  
March

The author of the universally praised *Teaching Science in the Elementary School* presents a much needed companion volume for secondary school teachers.

Rinehart & Company, Inc. • 222 MADISON AVENUE, NEW YORK 16, N.Y.



# BOOKS



*from Chicago*

**DISTINGUISHED BOOKS IN EDUCATION**

## **A SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF GIFTED CHILDREN**

By **ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST, EUGENE STIVERS, and ROBERT DeHAAN**

The major portion of this book consists in concise summaries of ways that gifted children are being educated in forty-five schools, school systems, and special projects throughout the United States. *Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 83* Paper, \$1.50

## **YOUTH DEVELOPMENT SERIES**

edited by **ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST**

### **A COMMUNITY YOUTH DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM**

By **ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST and OTHERS**

A community program for fostering gifted children and helping potentially maladjusted children. *Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 75* Paper, \$1.50

### **STUDYING CHILDREN AND TRAINING COUNSELORS IN A COMMUNITY PROGRAM**

By **PAUL H. BOWMAN and OTHERS**

Screening methods for locating children with intellectual aptitude or tendencies toward maladjustment, with leadership ability or talent in the arts. *Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 78* Paper, \$2.50

### **MOBILIZING COMMUNITY RESOURCES FOR YOUTH**

By **PAUL H. BOWMAN, ROBERT F. DeHAAN, JOHN K. KOUGH, and GORDON P. LIDDLE**

The typical child population of the community is described here in terms of social classes, family status, levels of ability, and problems of maladjustment. *Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 85* Paper, \$2.50

## **THE CHILD AND THE CURRICULUM and THE SCHOOL AND SOCIETY**

By **JOHN DEWEY. With an Introduction by LEONARD CARMICHAEL**

A Phoenix Book (P3)

Paperback, \$1.25

**THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS**

5750 ELLIS AVENUE

CHICAGO 37, ILLINOIS

## EDITORIAL ANNOUNCEMENT

The *School Review* will introduce several changes in policy and format with the next volume. The journal will become a quarterly. It will seek to focus special attention upon emerging problems and current issues in twentieth-century society and upon their implications for education. To provide for adequate discussion and critical analysis of these problems by leading authorities, articles will in general be longer than in the past. To make this policy more feasible, each issue will contain at least twice as many pages as were published each month in the past. The journal will be published in March, June, September, and December. The first issue of the quarterly, and the next to appear after the present (December) number, will be published in March, 1957.

Editorial direction will be given by an Editorial Board. Professor Francis S. Chase will serve as chairman of the Board. Other members will be Professors Allison Davis, John I. Goodlad, Maurice L. Hartung, Philip W. Jackson, Robert L. McCaul, and Herbert W. Schooling. Among the decisions already made by this board are the following. Problems and issues will be selected in terms of their fundamental nature and urgency and will not be restricted to the field of secondary education. The journal will continue to publish shorter articles on various educational problems as it has in the past, but the fraction of its total space devoted to them will be smaller than it has been. The section called "Educational News and Editorial Comment" and the Selected References on Secondary Education will be discontinued. Reviews of books will be more comprehensive, both as to selection of books and as to treatment.

Along with these changes in editorial policy will come a new format. The *School Review* has been redesigned to add to its attractiveness and readability and to give it a more modern appearance. Larger type will be used, and more space will appear between the lines. The larger number of pages in the quarterly will make it possible again to use a sewed binding, with the name of the journal and the month and volume numbers on the backbone.

For many years the publication of the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal* as a joint enterprise has been sponsored by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago and the University of Chicago Press. Editorial policies of both journals have been substantially similar, and the major differentiation between them has been that the *School Review* has focused on secondary education. The new policies outlined above are designed to increase the total effectiveness of the joint enterprise by making distinctions between the journals that rest upon differences other than the structural level of education that is emphasized. Among these are the purposes and nature of the materials published and their influence upon such matters as the length of articles.

The changes in the *School Review* beginning with Volume LXV for 1957 will, we believe, add appreciably to its effectiveness and significance for the educational profession. They are evidence of the determination of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago to search continually for newer and better ways to serve education in America.

## WHO'S WHO FOR DECEMBER

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HAROLD A. ANDERSON, assistant professor of education and director of student teaching at the University of Chicago. MONROE L. SPIVAK, teacher of science in the Barringer High School, Newark, New Jersey, reports an investigation to determine whether pupils entering junior high school from departmentalized seventh and eighth grades attained academic achievement and school adjustment superior to that of pupils entering from self-contained seventh- and eighth-grade classrooms. GRACE S. WRIGHT, assistant specialist in secondary education, Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, reviews the research completed in the past ten years on various aspects of the core program and points out areas for possible future research. SVEN LUNDSTEDT, assistant educational director, Staten Island Mental Health Center, Staten Island, New York, presents the results of a study which attempted to discover

whether changes in personality needs take place in a formal learning environment and whether such changes are related to certain cognitive changes. ARLENE G. COHEN, formerly teacher of art in Junior High School 64, Brooklyn, New York, contends that the art teacher's main responsibility is to allow students to develop their own standards in an atmosphere of flexibility. ALLAN O. PFNISTER, instructor in higher education at the University of Chicago, presents a list of selected references on higher education.

*Reviewers of books* JULIAN C. ALDRICH, professor of education, New York University. FRANK S. ENDICOTT, director of placement and associate professor of education, Northwestern University. HELEN M. ROBINSON, associate professor of education and director of the Reading Clinic, University of Chicago. PAUL R. PIERCE, visiting professor of education, Purdue University. W. H. LAURITSEN, chairman of the Health Education Department, San Diego State College, San Diego, California.

e  
d  
n  
-  
l  
e  
v  
n  
9.  
t  
f

or  
i-  
r,  
i-  
7.  
of  
i-  
s,  
i-  
ne  
o